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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

Family Decisions and Drug Use

by

© Lauriston Livingston Keown, Jr.

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
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FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled *Family Decisions and Drug Use* submitted by Lauriston Livingston Keown, Jr. in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Psychology.

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ABSTRACT

Although family and home deficiencies are often proposed as risk factors in the non-medical use of drugs by young people (Le Dain, 1973), these factors have been difficult to integrate with psychological models of the family environment. Models which have been largely ignored in research on family environments are those which involve formal planning and management systems. However, a formal analysis of a major family counselling model, Dreikurs' Family Council Technique (Dreikurs, 1974), demonstrates that this model is largely consonant with the management planning concepts proposed by Steiner (1974) and Cleland (1974). The present sutdy was an attempt to determine the relationship between family decisions and non-medical drug use. The operational definitions of the high risk family environment proposed by the Commission of Inquiry into the Non Medical Use of Drugs were evaluated using a group of 535 matched parents and students drawn from grades 7, 8, and 9 of the public and Roman Catholic school systems. Perceptions of students and parents on the questions relating to three major areas of the home environment: (1) the affective structure of their homes, (2) the decisional structure of their homes and (3) the communications structure of their homes. The results revealed little support for the contention that lack of perceived affection between parents and child was a salient variable in determining high risk home environments. The ability of children and parents to develop accurate perceptions of mutual affection was seen to be consonant with Dreikurs' technique for strengthening mutual respect and liking.

In terms of the decisional framework of the home, little support was found for the contention that mother dominant homes constitute a high risk environment; instead a significant number of drug users came from homes in which traditional, male parent dominant, patterns of family decision making exist.

No clear pattern of influence emerged regarding the relative roles of parents and best friends on students' behavior. In terms of actual behavior control, the experimental results of this study indicate that parents held uniformly high perceptions of the control they exerted over their children and that while the findings were not statistically significant, the results for the user group were in the direction of a reduction in the amount of perceived parental control by the student. Further, in the user groups the actual amount of parental control was judged by the parents to be less than the amount for the other groups.

Perceived opportunity for input and participation in decision making was a variable of major significance. There were clear differences between categories of drug use. Parents of the user group more frequently sought the opinion of their children than any other group; however, a sizeable number of individuals in this group felt that they were never consulted on decisions. On the other hand parents of the potential user group indicated that this group was the most frequently consulted group, but potential users held perceptions in the opposite direction and felt that they were consulted far less often than any other group.

No strong relationship between the status of communications in the home and non-medical drug use was found. Parents were willing to talk out problems with their children, and the children surveyed indicated that they felt that their parents were willing to talk to them about their problems. Yet over a third of all parents and children indicated that they found it difficult to talk over problems with each other. Fortunately, the direction of results indicates that difficulties in communication are generally one-sided and there were very few homes where both parent and child felt that they could not communicate with each other.

The general conclusions support the contentions of Cleland (1974) and other management science authors: if decisions in accord with organizational goals are to be made, then the persons affected by the decisions must be allowed to make timely input to the decisional process, and their input must carry weight. If these conditions can not be met then the goals of the organization will not be carried out, and personal decisions, such as one to use non-medical drugs may be made.

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Chapter 1

THE PROBLEM

*

SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Beginning in the 1960's statistical estimates of the non-medical use of drugs rose alarmingly. This statistical increase was paralleled by a growing social concern about the problems of drug abuse. To combat the rising use of drugs by young people two principal elements of social policy were utilized: legislation, and the formal education system.

An immediate response to increased non-medical drug use was for legislative bodies to pass very restrictive legislation proscribing drug use and providing heavy penalties for transgressors. Simultaneously, enforcement was increased and substantial numbers of young people found their lifestyles which included illicit drug use at variance with the law enforcement bodies. As a result of legislative-enforcement activity substantial numbers of persons were fined or imprisoned for partaking of this social phenomenon.

The formal education system in response to growing social concern over drug use began to revise existing curriculum or to investigate new study programs that included drug abuse information. In a short time drug abuse education had become a recognized education speciality and in February 1969 Research in Education (ERIC) added a drug abuse category.

Thus legitimized drug education became an area of emphasis for work by education professionals and those in related disciplines. The value attached to the educational component of efforts to counter drug abuse is reflected in the Final Report of the Commission of Inquiry into the Non Medical Use of Drugs where nearly all of the twenty-odd pages devoted to the role of the formal education system deal with it in the context of 'drug education'.

As our understanding of the drug abuse phenomenon grew it became apparent that it had no simple underlying cause. Social conditions such as poverty, ghetto or slum residence, unemployment, minority status were found to be among the important factors in the non-medical use of certain drugs. Yet illicit drug use had become a universal occurrence spanning both geography and social class.

Many explanations of the problem emerged. Keniston (1965, 1968) viewed drug use as a response to the alienation experienced by university students. Like Roszak (1969), Keniston hypothesized that drug use was an instrument of the evolving counter-culture that rejected the technocratic, overly bureaucratized contemporary social environment. For Roszak the quality of contemporary life lacks subjective satisfaction. This deficiency can not be overcome by economic gains, equality, social accomplishments, or any other socially acceptable reinforcement. Roszak feels that the outcome of this dissatisfaction will be the forming of a counter-culture that stresses satisfaction or rewards that are focused at the subjective level, not at the corporate level of society. Social conditions at the end of the nineteenth century caused Marx to generate a new social order based on a conflict between social classes; present social conditions in the view of Keniston and Roszak have caused a new social order based on a conflict between generations.

Considerable credence has been attached to Keniston and Roszak's position, especially since evidence of disturbed parent-child relations has been found among many drug users: much of this evidence is typified by the evidence of Chein, Gerard, Lee and Rosenfeld (1965) who conclude:

> "The one factor which we have found to be distinctly related to drug use and apparently unrelated to delinquency *per se* is the experience of living with a relatively cohesive family. The users have, on the average, been more deprived in this respect, than the non users."

There are some contradictory perspectives:

> "On the other hand some authors do not think that counter culture affiliation indicates a high degree of alienation or a radical departure from a conventional normative system. Rather, this style of life and the drug use that is concomitant with it is viewed as an extension of, but concomitant with, such middle class values as self-exploration and self-improvement."
> (Le Dain, 1973, p. 807)

The literature refers to the rejections of contemporary values, and the formation of a counter culture. However, this can be viewed in reverse, how did the family and our schools fail to transmit contemporary values to the next generation? Consideration of the ramifications of this question will be the subject of this study.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM - FRAME OF REFERENCE

Purpose

The general purpose of this study is to examine the decisional structure of the home as it relates to significant lifestyle decisions. The decisions that will be reviewed will relate not only to behavior that is counted as part of the average adolescent's repertoire (e.g. dating, style of dress, appropriate entertainment) but also to behavior that is much less sanctioned by the larger adult society (e.g. drinking, use of hard and soft drugs).

Because there is no positive evidence suggestive of a common mechanism underlying drug use, this study will focus on the decisional process of the home, from an organizational viewpoint. That is, the home will be treated as an organization accomplishing 'housekeeping' operations, but with the primary purpose of dissemenating its values and objectives to its group members. In our review of the literature we shall discuss evidence that suggests that when primary goals are perceived as too difficult, acquisition effort will often be transferred to secondary goals. Paralleling this, we shall study homes in which organizational (family) goals and values are not adequately established with a view to ascertaining if subjects will substitue the goals and values of peers and teachers for those not available in the home setting.

Traditionally, when fault has been found with the home setting, explanations have been sought in the psychological and/or sociological frame of reference. A fundamental postulation of this study will be that failure of the home to meet its objectives in situations uncomplicated by severe social or economic stress, primarily results from two causes: failure of the 'management system' in the home to induce goal related performance in its members, and/or inadequate planning processes in the home resulting in an inability of the 'managers' at the home level to cope with future events or to provide a guiding conceptual framework for developing problem solving strategies.

In short the fundamental question to be dealt with is: "What is the relationship between the management/planning complex of the home and non-sanctioned adolescent behavior?"

Importance of the Study

The author adheres to the philosophy advocated by Larson (1969) who advocates:

> "Manuscripts of this type should not be written for the sake of exercise nor experience alone. Somewhere beyond or behind the subtleties of verbiage there must be a pragmatic, heuristic purpose that while theoretical and empirical is also applicable to the solution of problems." (p. 6)

It is felt that from each of these three viewpoints, the present study has some value and utility.

Theoretically, there does not appear to be any satisfactory way to resolve the contradictory findings related to drug use from traditional frames of reference. Accordingly, a different viewpoint was adopted - the family must be viewed as an organization complete with a management/planning system, organizational goals and objectives, and the personal goals and objectives of the organization's members, the individuals of the family. The theoretical contribution of this study will be to see if such a perspective appears to be of use in understanding family decisions.

Empirically, this study will attempt to use very simple statements to describe the decisional structure of the home. The empirical success of this study will be measured in terms of how adequately a conceptualization of the decisional structure of the home can be developed from the data.

Should the theoretical viewpoint of the study be confirmed, then it would enable behavioral scientists to confidently apply simple, pragmatic, empirically oriented management development techniques to the home setting. While some counselling techniques presently have a management science base, the family is often considered to be an organization apart from all other human organizations. Dissipation of the "family mystique" might lead to a more rational, objective, empirical approach to family problems.

Limitations of the Study

Six areas of limitation have been considered in examining the results of this study.

First, there was a population limitation as the six schools selected were middle class, urban communities within a growing city of over 400,000 population. Three schools were from the separate (Roman Catholic) school system and three were from the public school system. Further, within each school system a representative "new" neighborhood, "well established" neighborhood, and "older" neighborhood school was identified to participate in the survey. It should be noted that the experimenter had little choice in the selection of the representative schools; however, as the selection list was established by the research professionals of each of the two boards, it is reasonable to accept their choices as being a valid sample. The internal strata of the sample, being based on neighborhood age was analyzed and neighborhood age was not found to be a significant sample characteristic.

The second limitation was age. The participants were seventh, eighth and ninth grade students. There was no sampling within individual schools as the entire grade 7-9 population participated in the survey.

A third limitation was the linking of parents' data with their childrens'. Approximately 1,000 students participated in the survey. Of this number 525 matched parent-child pairs resulted. Losses were due to the failure of children to return the sealed parents' questionnaire and to the procedure adopted to process parents who had more than one child in the sample group. In this case one child at random was chosen to be linked with the parent data. This selection was double blind in nature as the actual linking was carried out by computer techniques based on a random selection program.

The fourth limitation was the instrument itself. While a test-retest reliability procedure carried out on a control group yielded satisfactory reliability coefficients, (see Method and Appendix C for details) the unknown interactions that might occur between different age groups, and/or socio-economic groups and the survey instrument limit the generalization of the study results to parallel testing situations.

A fifth limitation to the study is based on the question of whether the students even under anonymous conditions were answering truthfully. The survey data was screened on an individual basis to remove those individuals who (1) never completed the questionnaire, (2) had provided obviously invalid answers, (3) had placed spurious marks on the paper in an attempt to interfere with the computer processing of the data by mutilating the IBM optical scoring sheets. Approximately seventy papers were rejected from the student group for these reasons. Six papers were rejected from the parent group for similar reasons.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A principal difficulty in the way in which the Commission of Inquiry into the Non Medical Use of Drugs (Le Dain, 1973) and others have handled the drug decision question is that while the authors of the report were able to move beyond the level of considering the decision making process at the individual level, by considering group processes, its deliberations extended only to considering group decision making as an unstructured concept. In doing so it considered only a portion of the psychology of decision making. Le Dain and his associates recognized that many of the decisions relating to drug use took place within a group context; they recognized that they were dealing with a change in lifestyle that was more than a passing episode of Canadian social life, and finally the Commission of Inquiry into the Non Medical Use of Drugs recognized that somehow in some subtle, although profound way, the formal social institutions, including the family had failed to check the growth of drug use.

On reading the committee's report, it is apparent that a thorough attempt to relate the drug phenomenon to the formal body of literature which makes up the behavioral sciences was carried out. In summary; however, the Committee could not exhaustively define what had happened, it could only describe family influences contributing to the adoption of a drug inclusive lifestyle in vague and general terms.

> "It is said of white middle-class families that the high risk family (i.e., a family in which the children have higher chances of becoming drug users) is one in which the parents are uncertain of their roles, both as parents and husband and wife; in which

the mother tends to be dominant and the father lacking in leadership in the family; in which the parents are permissive, hesitant to convey their values, and indeed unsure of their values, except the belief that children should be given freedom to develop their personalities; in which there is not a proper balance of affection and discipline; in which emotions are not expressed with freedom and confidence but problems tend rather to be intellectualized; in which the relations between husband and wife do not inspire a sense of security in the children; in which there is a lack of religious belief; a hostility towards authority, and a progressive leaning on political and social issues. The low-risk families by contrast, exhibit a very strong, warm, well-integrated pattern of family life, with a good combination of affection and discipline; there are warm and happy relations between the parents who accept their role as parents and as husband and wife, with leadership from the father that is authoritative but not autocractic - gentle but firm and tempered with humour; the parents are confident that they know how to bring up their children and are clear as to the values which they want to transmit, with emphasis on faith in God, respect for parents, self-control, tolerance and respect for one another. Within this framework of standards and discipline children are in fact given considerable scope for freedom and personal responsibility. Because they know what their

> parents expect they appear to be much more confident in their judgements. The children of the low-risk family are found to be resistant to peer group pressure. Because of the direction and support they receive in the families they do not seem to be as dependent on the approval or guidance of others. It is noteworthy that the parents and children of low-risk families are much more forgiving of themselves and each other. They like themselves and each other. They do not expect too much of each other. Blum's conclusion that a certain quality of family relationships provide the necessary conditions for self-restraint and the capability to resist group pressure and resolve personal conflicts without resorting to drug use is certainly an interesting hypothesis which warrants further attempts at empirical verification." (Le Dain, 1973, pp. 26-27)

Of what value are these conclusions? What use can the educator, the parent, the policeman, and even the youth of today make of this statement? Further we have heard this description of parental and family style before. In a review of the literature of school phobia Frick (1965) says:

> "The fathers are seen by all observers to be passive and subjected to the dominance of their wives . . . along with his wife the father has failed to emancipate from his family . . . the father's inability to define clearly his parental position." (p. 765)

References to the "degenerating" family structure are rife in the literature. Time and time again one meets Mr. & Mrs. X who as parents are failing to keep up with their neighbors the Jones in conveying social values to their children. Nor is there much comfort to be gained from studying the theoretical underpinnings of the decision process, for here one confronts a very large, very contradictory body of literature, empirical and otherwise, that deals with the decision process.

Susman (1972) in his anthology on social policy development has suggested a possible reason for the contradictory materials offered in evidence by workers in the field:

> "Much of today's controversy over drugs involves a conflict of values. Values, articulated in conduct norms and through them into social policies and in some cases into laws, may change; but it is a dialectical process rather than an evolutionary one. At the center of the social state we can see two well developed value systems struggling over the issues raised by drugs and their use, while a third system is beginning to be perceived. These ideological positions draw their sustenance from different institutions and are supported by distinctive organizational structures. Only by examining their assumptions and implications, as well as their institutional and organizational background, will their impact on drug norms be clear and the nature of the value conflict stand revealed..
>
> Social policy draws its meaning from the basic norms of society's dominant institution. And as one institution declines in prominence, another takes its place. The dominant institution in preindustrial society was religion, which gave way to capitalism

in industrial society. This institution, which borrowed from religion but became eventually autonomous, is itself giving way to another. Post-industrial society will be dominated by science, which although borrowing heavily from the culture of business, will eventually take another form with its own distinctive values. Nowhere is the impact of these institutions and their resultant assumptions and policies, more obvious than in drug norms. The policy concerning drugs as it may develop in post-industrial society is already evident in a rudimentary form. On the one hand, there is a religious conception which evokes the imagery of unsanctioned drug use as a sin; on the other, a work ethic which evokes the image of unsanctioned drug use as hedonism." (Susman, 1972, p. ii)

Unfortunately, there has been little attention paid to this collision of ideologies where it relates to the shifting orientation of social forces that influence today's students. If we accept Susman's notion as being valid, then it is quite possible that our somewhat confused ideas (such as the generation gap, Youth Sub-Culture may actually be artifacts arising from the decline of one socio-cultural value system and its replacement by a different system; instead of a true cause-and-effect relationship. This problem is also compounded by pressure arising from the media which has forced the development of public policy without a full understanding of the social dynamics involved.

We now have both sides of the equation. On one hand Le Dain ascribes the decline of social values and institutions to the failure of the family to carry forward the appropriate institutions and related values to the next generation. On the other hand, if we find truth in Susman's statement then the social order represents, like the trees of a forest, a succession state where one institution flourishes and then is replaced by another. However, there is a common thread that runs through viewpoints. It can be stated very simply: at the present time both public and private organizations are not coping with the basic issues that confront them. Consequently, these organizations be they the family, the school, the church, the provincial or federal governments, etc. are more or less continuously experiencing breakdowns in the decision making process which prevent the particular organization from optimizing the attainment of its goals. Both Le Dain and Susman are concerned with the inability of society and its concomitant social institutions to adapt to the dynamic changes taking place. The failure of the individual to make the socially desirable choice is only a symptom of the much larger failure of our overall social processes to hold the individual to a behavioral pattern that leads to the attainment of first family, and then social goals.

This challenge to maintain a dynamic stance is paralleled by the advice given industry by Edward Cole, the retiring president of General Motors, who offered the following observation on the real management challenge of the 1970's:

> "The big challenge to American business, as I see it, is to carefully evaluate the constantly changing expressions of public and national goals. Then we must modify our own objectives and programs to meet the new demands of the society we serve." (1970, p. 1)

Does the family (and social organizations in general) really undertake the development of a plan or even make use of formal planning processes? To answer this question we must turn to that portion of the behavioral sciences that deals with the management of organizations. Cleland (1974) in a review of management science related to organization has identified four main characteristics that define a planning system:

1. Concerned with the outcome of present decisions.
2. Identification and dissemination of strategic values and objectives.
3. Development of a guiding conceptual framework to provide a mechanism for developing strategy.
4. Development of a complex of plans to establish the overall future direction of the organiztion.

There is little doubt that these activities are undertaken at the family level in at least an informal way. The informality need not be a bar to the acceptance of the notion that planning at the family level is a very real thing. Steiner (1974) speaking of corporate planning states, "although the process can be done informally, more and more companies . . . find that it is best conducted in a more formal fashion". (p. 325) This suggestion of the virtues of a more formal planning process in the world of business is paralleled in the school and home sphere by the work of a number of authors headed by Rudolph Dreikurs (1897-1972) who investigated and developed the technique that bears his name. In a summary of the Dreikurs' technique completed after his death by a number of close associates in 1974, some striking parallels between the "Family Council" and Cleland's four characteristic planning activities emerge. The basis of the Family Council is found in a number of propositions and desirable states (Dreikurs _et al_, 1974) which are listed in figure I-1.

Thus it can be concluded that the family council technique possesses in every major way the trappings of formal planning techniques. Further it accommodates some very important provisions which a planning system must possess to be effective. It accepts organizational concepts planning as a basic philosophy and provides the proper climate in the home to encourage further planning. As Steiner (1974) indicates, "This climate is a function of many forces, among which is an attitude of wanting to do effective planning." (p. 327) Further for family planning to be effective it must recognize the values and expectations of the people involved in the process. "Planning is a new and significant communications system. It permits people to participate in the decision making process . . . it is a learning and mind-stretching exercise." (Steiner, 1974, p. 346) "In the family council, anything that affects family life can be discussed. When there is an open atmosphere, problems can be dealt with before they reach impossible proportions." (Dreikurs _et al_, 1974, p. 4)

The foregoing discussion leads to a necessary conclusion; an effective home environment is one that formulates the interpersonal decisions of its members, and of the family as a whole, on the basis of an orderly planning model. Whether formal or informal techniques are used is of little importance - for effective decision making to

Figure I-1

Dreikurs Model
Propositions and Desirable Operational States

PROPOSITION	DESIRABLE STATES
1. The family is an organization.	1. Minimun conflict 2. Orderly operation 3. Participants share goals and objectives 4. Resources (human and material) rationally allocated to tasks 5. Open communication
2. Emotions follow intellect and behavior.	1. Harmonious setting 2. An operational strategy that relates feelings and actions 3. Value of positive experiences stressed
3. Human beings can function as equals.	1. Mutual respect of all team members 2. Power is based not on positional or authority factors but on experience and expert knowledge.
4. Logic works better than force.	1. Discussion of objectives, plans and strategies should lead to consensus regarding mutual action
5. Human relationships are logical.	1. Understanding of values, and expectancies of others 2. Understanding consequences of personal actions on others 3. Developing framework to serve as a guide for specific strategies to cope with world beyond family
6. Parents and children are engaged in a cooperative venture.	1. Recognition that the success of the whole requires every element to enjoy success.
7. Well being depends on cooperation.	1. Social conscience is an underlying maxim of family operations.

This overview of the basic propositions of the Family Council can readily be cross indexed with Cleland's planning attributes to yield the following structure. (Figure I-2).

Figure I-2

The Concern of Planning Related to
the Concern of the Family Council

A Comparison of Cleland's Planning Model and
Dreikurs' Technique

Part I

Present Decisions and
Identification/Dissemination of Values and Objectives

CLELAND
"Concern of Planning"

1. Futurity of Present Decisions
2. Identification/Dissemination of Values and Objectives
3. Development of a Guiding Conceptual Framework to Provide Mechanism for Developing Strategy
4. Development of a Complex of Plans to Establish Future Direction of Organization

Figure I-2
(continued)

Part II

Planning Aspects -
Conceptual Framework and Concept of Plans

DREIKURS
"Concern of Family Council"

Proposition	Related States and Actions
1. Family Organization	4) Allocation of Resources
2. Emotions follow intellect & behavior	(ALL)
6. Family as cooperative venture	(ALL)
7. Wellbeing depends on cooperation	1) Development of future social order
1. Family Organization	3) Shared goals and objectives
	5) Open communication
4. Logic vs. Force	1) Obtaining mutual consensus from shared expectancies and goals
5. Relationships are logical	1) Understanding of values and expectancies
5. Relationships are logical	3) Development of framework to serve as a guide for specific coping strategies
(ALL)*	(ALL)*

* This is the summary objective of Family Council proposition one "The Family is an Organization" is axiomatic in Dreikurs' System. All other propositions serve to mold and guide organizational processes across time.

Adapted from Cleland (1974) and Dreikurs *et al* (1974) take place, the method used must parallel in some way the four characteristics described by Cleland.

At the individual family/family member level, the success or failure of the decisional process in the home will depend on how well Cleland's prescriptive planning characteristics, or Dreikurs' technique can accommodate these psychological attitudes prevalent in the home which have an impact on the planning process. While terms such as communication, resistance to change, and cognitive complexity have come to form part of the planner's basic vocabulary, if we accept Taylor's (1976) view that in reality "psychological variables reflect behavioral predispositions of the various parties to the planning process" (Taylor, 1976, p. 66), there have been very few published studies which have directly attempted to investigate the impact of psychological variables on planning. Taylor further suggests that these basic predispositions or attitudes towards planning are most clearly seen when they have a negative effect on the planning process. For Taylor, the failure of people involved in an organizational enterprise to carry out effective planning is generally caused by problems which fall into three major areas:

1. Resistance to planning activities
2. Lack of motivation to improve performance
3. Cognitive limitations of planners

Of these areas, the first two pose major, fundamental stumbling blocks to the use of planning techniques be they those of the industrial planner or a typical family group attempting to institute a family council within the home.

The third area will be covered in our review of Linstone's (1973, 1974) work, and as will be shown later, cognitive limitations to planning is a cause of many diffuse planning difficulties.

Resistance to Planning Activities

Numerous studies have documented the presence of a very real resistance on the part of involved parties not only to plans but to planning activity as a whole. Ewing (1969) in discussing the human component of the planning process aptly describes this problem, "People resist change - or, more accurately, they resist being changed by other people." (1969, p. 44) The reasons for this resistance are based on many valued social and individual dynamics ranging from an individual's fear of change or the unknown to the vast momentum that social institutions acquire over time and the concerted effort required to modify the direction and goals of an organization once they have been in existence and have become deeply entrenched in the outlook of the organization being pursued over a period of time.

Johnston (1970) offers another insight into other factors that inhibit change:

> "The other factor inhibiting change has to do with the myriad of interlocking practices that have been built up over the centuries for an earlier and very different society. The permanence of our organizational hierarchies assumes that those at the top are not only competent to hold the top job at present but will always be competent to hold it."

Resistance of this sort is generally dealt with by adopting operational mechanisms that encourage participation in the planning process by those who will be most affected by the plans, or by 'educating' those involved in planning activities to the basic benefits of any suggested changes.

Lack of Motivation to Improve Performance

In a detailed examination of the relationship between task-goal attributes and employee performance, Steers and Porter (1974) successfully combined the Operation/Organization Research-Management Science field with the far larger body of psychological literature dealing with human performance. These authors concluded that the relevant literature grouped itself into six relatively autonomous areas:

a) Goal specificity
b) Participation in goal setting
c) Feedback on goal progress
d) Peer competition for goal attainment
e) Goal difficulty
f) Goal acceptance

The first five groupings were derived from the factor analytic study of task-goal attributes and the sixth grouping, "goal acceptance" has been identified as a key psychological variable in many recent studies. (French, Kay, and Meyer, 1966; Locke, Bryan, and Kendall, 1969) Even a brief study of these groupings suggests that they would be of considerable relevance and importance to the modern educator/ manager. Accordingly we shall review each grouping in some detail.

Goal Specificity

The principal question regarding goal specificity is simply whether there is any advantage, in terms of performance, to be gained from setting forth clear explicit goals toward which the individual is to work. In a wide range of laboratory studies beginning with the pioneer work of Mace (1935) and carried out by later researchers such as Eagle and Leiter (1964) and Bryan and Locke (1967), the general conclusion of the studies was that highly specific goals serve to focus attention and effort which can lead to improved performance. Whether this enhanced performance is a transient phenomenon or whether improvement can be sustained over a considerable period of time was a question not attacked in these early studies. While the majority of studies that do focus on performance over time are drawn from an industrial setting: Campbell, Dunette, Lawler, and Weick (1970); Raia (1965) and Stedry and Kay (1964) and therefore deal with performance only as it relates to the formal employment situation, there have been several general field studies employing several different populations carried out by researchers such as Likert (1961), and Steers (1973). The general conclusion reached in both industrial and non-industrial situations, was that providing subjects with clear and specific goals produces better results than not providing such goals.

Participation in Goal Setting

Vroom (1964) has argued that the act of participating in the goal setting process can be seen as a process which enhances the likelihood of task success. In his general review of empirical studies of the participative decision making process Vroom found that task performance did increase as the persons involved in the task were given greater opportunity to make input on the conditions that affected the task. While Vroom attributes this effect to increased ego involvement in the task, other authors have related it to job satisfaction (Likert, 1961, 1967; Myers 1966, 1970). However, these findings may not be clear indications of a basic relationship between participation and performance as there have been a number of studies which have found either a weak relationship (French *et al*, 1966; Meyer, Kay and French, 1965); or no evidence of a relationship at all (Carroll and Tosi, 1970).

French and his colleagues (1966) felt that the act of setting the goal itself had far more influence on task performance than participation in the goal setting process. This supposition was supported by the findings of a recent experiment by Lawler and Hackman (1969) which evaluated the effects of incentive attendance plans on employee absentism and found that attendance improved only in those groups that had directly participated in the design of the plan.

Feedback on Progress Towards Goal

Feedback on goal attainment or, as it is generally called, knowledge of results has long been thought to have motivational value. The experimental paradigms used to study this topic stem from the classic work of Johanson (1922) and Hurlock (1924, 1925). Johanson studied the effect of knowledge of results in a reaction time measuring situation where one group was provided with no knowledge of the speed of their reactions while another group was told the speed of their reaction after each trial. The group that was informed of their reaction time performed more quickly than the non-informed group. Hurlock's experiments (1924) were carried out within an educational framework using three levels of knowledge of results: praise; reproof; and a "non information" control group. Both the praise and reproof groups achieved higher retest scores compared to the control group. Hurlock (1925) carried out a subsequent and more detailed experiment using a control group which was segregated from the experimental groups and three experimental groups housed in the same room. The experimental groups were divided into two parts. One group was ignored, that is they received neither praise nor reproof, but heard others being praised or reproved; another group received praise; and the final experimental group received reproof. The results showed that performance improved on a short term basis for both the praised and the reproved groups. However, in repeated trials the rate of performance improvement of the reproved groups fell off while the praised groups continued to show gains. Finally, both the reproved and the "ignored" groups had greater performance gains than the control groups. The enduring aspect of these experiments on educational philosophy has been pointed out by Coffer and Appley (1966) who state " . . . These experiments have been interpreted as showing that praise is better than reproof in inciting performance, because it is more enduringly effective than reproof." (p. 771)

The "final position" of these early experiments is best summed up in a review by Ammons (1956) who concludes that as a general effect, knowledge of results causes an increase in task performance. Some of this effect is motivational and is due to increases in attention, interest, and reduction of boredom (as pointed out in the classic "Hawthorne" industrial studies). However, feedback on progress provides information as well as direct motivaton, and performance changes due to information can not easily be separated from those resulting only from motivational effects.

Practically, Mosel (1958) advances two reasons for providing a person with knowledge of results: First it provides information on what activities are required, thus keeping task activities confined to productive directions. Secondly, it affects motivation by allowing the person to experience a sense of progress towards goal attainment. This view of knowledge of results is essentially a motivational one - in fact, it parallels the "two factor theory of motivation", advanced in the early fifties by Duffy (1949) and incorporated in many of the early studies of the feedback - performance relationship. A detailed examination of this contention has been carried out by Locke, Cartledge and Koeppel (1968). Basically Locke and his associates found that none of the studies reviewed contained results which were contrary to the hypothesis that the motivational effects of knowledge of results depends upon the resetting of goals by the subject. Where knowledge of results effects were clearly separated from those attributed to level of aspiration, it was found that there was no effect of knowledge of results that could not be attributed to goal setting itself. Thus the authors concluded that performance increases only when the subject sets higher personal performance standards in response to the information provided. While this review was carried out within the context of Locke's theory of goal setting (Locke, 1967) its general conclusions have gained wide acceptance by contemporary researchers.

When all of the above research is considered, it is apparent that knowledge of results effects performance in complex and subtle ways. However, if the task/performance measuring criteria are agreed upon by the persons engaged in the task, _if_ the knowledge of results contains clear and precise information related to the task at hand, and _if_ this information results in the setting or resetting of performance goals; then task performance will be enhanced. The range of conditions for producing the knowledge of results - performance enhancement effect is very limited and the role of individual differences is very great; consequently, the formal conditions for fostering this process must be built into the system (in the same way that Dreikurs deliberately built this process into his family council technique) if the desired performance enhancement is to occur.

Peer Competition and Goal Attainment

Early studies of peer competition and its effect on task performance, centered on the question of whether or not the group does not possess a factor or process that transcends the individuals involved. This search for evidence of the "group mind" permeates the early literature concerned with group processes; nevertheless, some interesting and relative findings were obtained. The best known, and certainly the most influential of these researchers, were Allport (1920, 1924) and Dashiell (1930, 1935). Allport's studies concerned comparison of the behavior of the individual when working alone against performance obtained in the group situation. In a variety of tasks Allport found that where social facilitation occurred task performance increased. However, distraction and excitement caused some performance decreases and in addition, the 'reasoning products' from the social contexts were often not as good as those obtained from the individual situations. Further, extremity of judgement, and in some cases creativity, was reduced in the social situations. Dashiell's work centered on the effect of social incentives on performance exploring rivalry and competition as social incentives. Again 'mixed results' were obtained. Quantatative performance (speed) increased in many cases, but the quality of performance suffered. There were large individual differences, some individuals doing far more poorly in the group situation. These early studies tended to merge specific group situations into a general analysis of the group process and as Vroom (1964) suggests, task performance under group situations is probably closely related to the ego involvement of the indivdual with the aims of the group.

Both Likert (1967) and Locke (1968) have demonstrated that performance increases quite dramatically in the group situation where a norm of high achievement is established within the group. Nevertheless, Steers and Porter (1974) cite six studies where a positive relationship was found between peer competition and performance and nine studies supporting a negative relationship. Miller and Hamblin (1963) attempted to reconcile these contradictory findings by studying the role of task-person interdependence on the competition-performance relationship. Their results showed that a negative relationship between competition and performance/effort occurs only where the task required a high degree of cooperation among group members. Competition had no great effect on performance under any experimental condition; even where the task at hand required a low degree of cooperation only a weak positive relationship between competition and performance emerged. The authors conclude that the nature of the situation, in terms of whether the task requires coordinated and interrelated effort on the part of the group members, is the only salient factor in determining the performance consequences of a competitive situation.

The findings of the relevant research in this area make it quite clear that there is no simple relationship between peer competition and performance. Steers and Porter (1974) aptly summarize this contradictory area by saying:

> " . . . We would expect peer competition to be a more effective vehicle for increased performance only where product quality was not a consideration or was controlled externally. If craftsmanship was a central concern in output such competition might have a determined effect . . . Serious consideration must be given to the reward system being employed in the work environment. It would appear that peer competition for goal attainment might be more strongly related to performance where a zero-sum gain situation exists _vis_ _a_ _vis_ rewards or payoffs. There can be only one winner in a race, for example. Where this is not the case, as it probably would not be in the majority of actual field situations, we would expect the effects of peer competition on performance to be greatly diminished." (1974, p. 441)

Goal Difficulty

As was mentioned earlier, many of the studies of the effects of knowledge of results on performance were unintentionally contaminated by performance effects related to goal difficulty. Once the presence of the considerable effect that perceived goal difficulty has on performance was realized, this topic became the area of concern for a very large number of studies. Predictably, most of the results produce an inverted 'U' shaped function typical of motivational effects and well known to all beginning psychology students. Basically, up to some optimum point, increasing goal difficulty increases the amount of effort that is expended for goal attainment; however, if goal difficulty rise beyond the optimum point and the goal is perceived to be impossible to obtain, then effort will be reduced. This curvilinear function relating effort and achievement has come to form the foundations of many systems of motivation (Atkinson, 1964; Hebb, 1955; March & Simon, 1958); nevertheless, little attempt was made in these early formulations to explain why goal difficult plays such a crucial role in performance. For a review of early work in this area the reader is referred to one of the standard texts on motivation (e.g. Cofer and Apply, 1966; Harber, 1966). The literature from the early 1950's onwards was also reviewed by Steers and Porter (1974), who conclude:

> "In all studies, a strong and consistent relationship was found between the difficulty of the goal and performance, assuming the goal was accepted. Where goal acceptance was not present, no such relation appeared . . . The greater the difficulty the greater the performance." (1974, p. 442)

It must be acknowledged that there are some severe limitations attached to this statement. A number of studies, Uhlinger and Stephens (1960) and Zander and Newcomb (1967) have demonstrated that performance will show a much greater increase when performance goals are continually reviewed and re-established. However, Zander and Newcomb (1967) point out that this effect does not occur when subjects have consistently failed to attain past goals. Their findings underline the inherent problems caused by repeatedly establishing goals that the subject can never attain: Not only will performance not be sustained; even more seriously, the entire goal setting process may suffer a severe loss of credibility which will cause the subject to dismiss all future goals that are established by that mechanism as being impossible to attain. In addition, a group experiment by Stedry (1960) measuring the relative value of setting personal performance goals either pre or post to the setting of group goals yielded results that support the contention that higher group performance results when the group leader takes the initiative and sets forth his 'performance targets' for discussion prior to the setting of the performance levels by the individual group members.

The majority of research on goal difficulty has involved work with a simple, single goal paradigm; whereas, most situations involve task operations based on a number of concurrent goals. Where a subject is engaged in a task or a series of tasks that have a number of target goals, the goal-task performance situation becomes complex. A number of authors: Stedry and Kay (1964, 1966) and Charnes and Stedry (1964), have developed theoretical frameworks which in essence are a psychological counterpart of the well known, "Indifference Theory" used in economics. (Briefly stated, economic indifference models postulate that if a person uses two commodities, A and B, that can be substituted for one another, such as shoes and boots, then the individual will be insensitive to supply and demand changes in A or B over a wide range of values; however, if these supply or demand changes become too severe in one of these joint commodities then the person will 'substitute' one for the other and thus 'average' his market circumstances over all the objects in the group.) These authors suggest tnat a person will place primary effort on those goals that have a reasonable probability of success, and that performance will increase in an orderly fashion as task difficulty increases up to some point (the outer boundary of the 'indifference' area). At this point the subject will no longer be indifferent to the goal difficult and will transfer his performance to another goal of his multigoal framework. For example a student might transfer effort on an English essay to his mathematics homework if he perceives that the effort required to obtain a top mark in English is disproportionately higher than the effort required for a top mathematics mark. Steiner (1974) concludes that, "Goals that are far too high or far too low do not inspire action. Objectives should be a little aggressive (i.e., foreceful and challenging) and should require imagination and hard work to achieve." (p. 336)

Goal Acceptance

> "Goal acceptance represents the degree to which a subject agrees with and accepts his task goals in preference to other potential goals. Such a definition goes beyond mere compliance behavior by a subject who may disagree with such goals. Instead, it concludes a strong positive attitude towards such goals that may be likened to goal ownership. In this sense, goal acceptance is viewed in terms of a congruence between assigned task goals

and individual aspiration level with respect to these goals."

(Steers and Porter, 1974, p. 444)

With this definition in mind, it becomes apparent that a major weakness in many of the studies of task-goal relationships is the assumption that the assigning of goals automatically results in their acceptance by persons involved in the task. In the previously discussed experiment carried out by Stedry (1960), it was found that subjects were very resistive to and, in fact, rejecting of task goals that were externally assigned after the individual had established his personal goals relative to the task at hand. Ryan (1970) and Locke (1968) both caution that the researcher must make a clear distinction between external task/group goals and internal/personal goals. Steers and Porter go even one step further and state ". . . it is possible that many of the conflicting results in the goal setting literature can be explained, in part, by the inappropriate equating of these two variables." (1974, p. 444) From our review of participation in the goal setting process, it is apparent that a major contributing factor to the overall success of participation schemes is that the very act of participation tends to increase personal acceptance of group tasks. Participation will often ensure that the goals conform to the ethical and social codes accepted by society and by the group. This 'ethical consideration' is advanced by Steiner (1974) as a major consideration in the setting of goals and objectives. Again Steers and Porter provide a succinct overview of this question, "If the contention is correct that motivation to perform may be a much more effective predictor of performance than goal setting alone." (1974, p. 445)

A summary of the review of the six task goal attributes and their relative effect on task performance based on the Steers and Porter (1974) review is given in figure I-3. On reviewing eighty experiments, Steers and Porter (1974) reach the conclusion that these somewhat contradictory findings can be understood if viewed from a theoretical perspective based on expectancy/valence theory.

Expectancy/Valence Theory

Expectancy/valence theory is a general model derived from the learning theory developed by Tolman (1932) which stressed the functions of goals and rewards. Tolman's model postulates a number of concepts at least two of which, the 'belief-value matrix' and 'behavior space', have survived the passage of time and subsequent research efforts to become embedded in modern theories of motivation and learning. Tolman's concept of the belief-value matrix is that there exists, at the individual or cultural level a structure of beliefs which predicates that carrying out actions, acquiring objects, mastering situations attaining goals, etc. will have the ultimate capacity to satisfy needs or to provide a satisfaction having reinforcing characteristics. For the individual these actions, objects, situations, or goals are clustered into groups which the individual believes have the capacity to satisfy a need. For example, the category restaurants might be 'believed' to have the capacity to satisfy a hunger need. Tolman felt that various objects within each category could have varying values as to the expectation or belief that an individual might have regarding the actual capacity of the object to satisfy his need. These belief-value or expectancy-value matricies are acquired by the individual through experience and are instrumental in the process through which

Figure I-3

TASK GOAL ATTRIBUTES AND PERFORMANCE EFFECTS/RELATIONSHIP

ATTRIBUTE	RELATIONSHIP TO OR EFFECT ON PERFORMANCE
Goal Specificity	Consistent and positive (increased performance) effect found in both laboratory and field experiments.
Acceptance of Task Goals	Consistent, strongly positive effect found in field studies. Little relevant laboratory work available.
Goal Difficulty	Less consistent findings - some indications of a positive relationship; however, some opposing results. Difficulties in comparing 'unitary' goal experiments with 'multigoal' situations. Laboratory situations generally find a simple positive relationship; whereas, field studies find either no effect or a very complex, interaction-type effect.
Participation in Goal Setting	Inconsistent findings - situation/environmental factors have considerable impact. Goal acceptance plays important role; however, was not evaluated in many studies.
Knowledge of Results/ Feedback on Goal Progress	A very complex relationship modified by level of aspiration and other individual differences. Some evidence of a positive relationship especially for individuals with high need for achievements and affiliation.
Peer Competition for Goal Achievement	No consistent relationship with performance. Evidence of a positive relationship with job involvement has been noted. An interaction effect with reward system may exist - a positive relationship for zero-sum game situations and much weaker relationship for multiple-winner situations.

* Based on Steers and Porter's 1974 Review

an individual satisfies his various needs.

Tolman's other major concept is behavior space. This consists of the individual's environment and the elements contained within it. These elements have positive and negative valences derived from the individual's belief-value matrix and includes on a moment-to-moment basis activating and directing influences such as need states, and satiation conditions. This concept stresses that the individual reacts to his environment not as it objectively exists, but in terms of how he perceives it to exist. Thus perception is shaped by the manner in which the individual's belief-value matrix translates factual reality into a subjective expectancy that a certain object/situation/action will satisfy a prevailing need. This perception will be further modified by valence that the individual attaches to the need and to that which will satisfy it. Thus, "the need system and the belief matrix seem in their interaction, to produce the behavior space and essentially to constitute what Tolman would mean by personality." (Cofer and Appley, 1966, p. 509)

The impact of Tolman's concepts on the behavioral sciences should not be underestimated. The field of Psychology has been productive of a large number of learning theorists and Tolman is counted as a major theorist in a sizeable universe of other major theorists. Because of the very limited number of learning theorists in the field of Sociology, Tolman's ideas were to have a profound and fundamental effect on Sociological theory. How did Tolman come to be accepted as a social theorist? In the early fifties the staff of the Department of Social Relations, Harvard University, then the hub of the Sociological Universe carried out a review of the theoretical basis of the field of social relations.

The principal authors of this work were Talcott Parsons, Edward Shils, Richard Sheldon and Edward Tolman from the University of California.

The final document produced by this group and published in 1951 by the Harvard University Press marks the emergence of Sociology as a social science; it is Towards a General Theory of Action produced under the joint editorship of Parsons and Shils, with Tolman, Allport, Kluckhorn, Murray, Sears, Sheldon and Stouffer as authors. The regard which Talcott Parsons held for Tolman is best summed up in Parson's concluding chapter:

> "Logically this scheme (the general theory of Action) is founded on certain categories of behavior psychology. These contain by implications the main categories of the frame of reference of the theory of action. The implications, however, have not heretofore been drawn into a manner which would be adequate to the study of human personality, cultural and social systems, although the categories developed previously by Tolman in his study of animal behavior have brought these implications within reaching distance." (1962 Edition, p. 235)

The origins of expectancy/valence theory have been discussed not merely as a historical curiosity; rather, it provides considerable insight as to how present day extensions and adaptations of Tolman's ideas have come to form an important basis of modern management science where echoes of Tolman's ideas continue to be pronounced in the literature of modern management science as the factual basis for organizational structure. Steiner (1974) without qualification states, "value systems not only influence objectives but also all sorts of decisions" (p. 331) Going further he cautions, "expectations of other managers, hourly workers and staff are also important in what a company plans to do." (p. 331) "A large company that can forecast changes in society's values that will affects its fortunes will obviously have an advantage." (p. 334) Finally Steiner advises the corporate lion that "finding a particular spot, a propitious niche, where a company can give a customer an irresistible value that is not being satisfied and at a relatively low cost is a strategy that has made many companies rich." (p. 338)

The route through which Tolman's theories made their way into management science was only partially through Psychology and Education, where Tolman is regarded as a historical figure but one whose theories have been superceeded by far more sophisticated and elegant formulations. Rather, Tolman's ideas largely penetrated the field of management science through the restatement of the field of Sociology by the Harvard University Department of Social Relations and also through the influence that this Department had on the Harvard Graduate School of Business. Tolman's model was a timely one - it received support in Sociology just at the time Psychology and its learning theorists were involved in the collapse of the Hull/Spence learning models and when the new groups of learning theories based on probablistic concepts were still in their infancy. Tolman's model also stressed concepts familiar to the manager in that they have economic counterparts, for example, valences have the economic counterpart of marginal propensities - a concept well known to the manager. The concept of behavioral space stresses the individual's perceptions and beliefs, not the reality of the situation; and in the business world of the 1950's - one just discovering the magic of product and corporate 'images', this was an easily accepted concept. Finally, value/expectancy theory is an adequate theoretical formulation to deal with individual behavior in the limited environment organizational setting and to provide a theoretical formulation to deal with individual behavior in the limited environment organizational setting and to provide a theoretical formulation which encompassed a range of detail and variables suited to the organizational researcher (Mischel, 1973).

As a consequence, while expectancy/valence models have received limited attention and use in present day psychological and educational circles, these models still possess considerable utility in organizational/operations research. As a useful model, it has been developed and refined by several modern organization psychologists and management scientists among them Campbell, Dunnette, Lowler, and Weick (1970) Heneman and Schwab (1972), and Graen (1969).

The modern version of expectancy/valence theory in its most simplified form states that,

> "The motivational forces of an individual to perform is a multiplicative function of his subjective probability that his effort will lead to the receipt of certain rewards and the valence he places on these rewards." (Steers and Porter, 1974, p. 446)

While more complex and elaborate statements of the theory exist, this simple statement is sufficient to gain an overview of the theory's utility in the organizational setting.

The utilitarian nature of expectancy/valence theory can be appreciated when one casts the findings of our review of the task-goal/performance relationships against this theoretical background. If one views the research findings from this theoretical perspective, it becomes apparent that the various task-goal attributes that affect individual performance do so because they affect either the expectancy component, the valence component, or both components comprising the motivational force equation. As the model is in essence a drive reduction one, any changes in motivational force (or drive) will be accompanied by a correlative change in performance level/effort.

Steers and Porter (1974) provide some interesting examples of how expectancy/valence theory can apparently reconcile the contradictory empirical findings discussed earlier in this paper.

1. Goal specificity - By providing highly specific goals, the individual will know more precisely what is desired of him. This reduction in search behavior should clarify for the individual the relationship between effort, performance, and the resulting rewards. The strengthening of this relationship should elevate the individual's level of expectations related to the job resulting in more consistent performance. (Although total performance will still be related to the valence attached to the need-reward component.)

2. Employee participation in goal setting - Participation may increase the valence the individual places on goal attainment due to increased ego involvement. Increasing the valence placed on potential goal attainment should increase performance. Further it may well be that performance differences observed between high need achievement individuals may be due to the

tendancy of the high need achievement individual to become ego involved in task outcomes and increase his valences regarding task outcomes accordingly.

Steers and Porter's final example deals with the very complex peer competition-performance relationship - a relationship which has considerable implications for North American educational systems where a quasi-competitive performance evaluation system exists.

3. (A) In the zero sum game situation, one where there can be only one winner, expectancy/valence theory would predict an increase in valences concerning outcomes due to the added value attached by the individual to attaining a goal being avidly sought by his peers. However, as there can be only one winner, it is probable that outcome expectancies would be lowered because the individual, suspecting that his peers also hold increased valences for the final reward, would realize that increased effort might not necessarily lead to a reward slate. Therefore, the projected positive motivational increases due to larger reward valences would be largely negated due to lowered outcome expectancies and predicted performance level changes would be marginal. This prediction of little performance changes in a competitive, single winner, situation is in accord with the majority of empirical evidence.

(B) However, in a non-zero sum game situation, one in which the possibility of multiple winners exists, there is little reason to believe that competition would have a large effect on reward valences; yet, outcome expectancies should be higher because there is the possibility of multiple winners. The final outcome predicted from the theory would again be marginal performance gains because the somewhat higher outcome expectancies would be negated by the lessening of goal valences. Again, this prediction is in accord with study findings.

A point which seems to have eluded Steers and Porter is that valence/expectancy theory would predict that in the zero sum game situation, valences would increase sharply for those goal components which in accord with the individual's belief-value matrix, are perceived (based on past experience) to be most closely related to need satisfaction. On the other hand in the non-zero sum game situation this sharpening of valency 'focus' would not take place. Thus the predicted outcome for the zero sum game situation would be that key performance goals would be stressed and others would be sacrificed. For example, quality or craftsmanship might be 'sacrificed' to quantity of production. The prediction in the non-zero sum game situation would be that no particular task goal would be preeminent over others and that the task goals would be dealt with as a unified group.

These predictions are in general agreement with the empirical findings of peer competition-performance studies. Further, even casual reflection upon them will provide an operational description of how the performance-facilitative aspects of competitive situations can suddenly 'go sour' and result in determental outcomes for the group, not only in terms of individual performance, but also in terms of individual performance, but also in terms of the attainment of the 'wrong' objectives. The understanding of the role of expectations and valencies is very necessary in our modern social environment where we often desire to emphasize objectives such as "sportsmanship" and yet unknowingly establish a competitive paradigm wherein the largest increase in valencies is focused on the sole goal of 'winning'. Even more corrosive in the modern social situation is where individual performance is actually suppressed in the competitive situation because the individual acquires an expectancy set that he will fail. Under this sort of negative expectation, increasing goal valencies will eventually cause gross distortions of the individual's belief-value matrix, since over a period of time his negative experiences will become incorporated into his formal belief-value system. If the empirical evidence on goal difficulty is credible, then not only would overall effort decrease, but the values placed on central goals would be shifted to minor, peripheral goals. The ultimate consequence could well be that the very goals the competitive situation was 'designed' to foster and protect would come to be discarded from the individual's belief-value matrix. The individual's behavior space would become dominated by other goals, some of which could easily be socially or psychologically maladaptive.

The powerful effects of goal acceptance are easily understood in terms of expectancy/valence theory. If a goal is truly accepted at the individual level it must be inferred that in terms of the individual's belief-value matrix, the assigned goal has a high valence with a resulting increase in motivational force. If a task goal is not accepted at the individual level, then it is very unlikely that it would be assigned a high valence, consequently performance/effort will be small. In fact, if the assigned task goal was not accepted while the reward-expectation of the situation was very large, it could well happen that the individual's belief-value system would throw forth a purely personal goal, unrelated to the group task. Under this condition, performance might not only be at a lower than desired level, it might contain counter-productive elements tending to destroy the entire individual or group effort.

In this present study of family decision making we shall see how greater care and attention should be given to individual expectancies and valences especially as they relate to task goals, situational-environmental factors, and individual differences. Also of great concern is the basic mechanism by which overall organizational goals are translated into task goals and the process by which task goals fitted to the framework of personal values and expectations.

It is interesting to note that those family problem solving techniques which have achieved empirical success contain mechanisms and procedures by which the values of individual family members can be determined, their expectations explored, and finally procedures through which the development of the individual's belief-value system can develop satisfying activities within a framework stressing growth and development.

For example, referring to the fundamental propositions of Dreikurs' Family Council technique discussed earlier and the cross indexing of these propositions with Cleland's planning attributes (figure I-2), it is apparent that individual values and expectancies play central roles in each of these systems.

In the Family Council technique great emphasis is laid on understanding and respecting the values and expectancies of others, obtaining family consensus, goal acceptance, and agreement on the mutual action to be undertaken by the family group. Further, procedural emphasis is focused on positive experiences which help individuals develop an understanding of the consequences of personal actions. The effect of these growth-encouraging experiences over a period of time should be to develop the belief-value matrix of the individual in a manner that provides a behavioral space in which the individual can attain his full potential as a human being.

Our discussion of the Dreikurs' technique has been an illustrative one to demonstrate the way a specific motivational model such as the expectancy/valence model can be used to further our understanding of the dynamics and processes behind decisional techniques. While this discussion has revealed the empirical procedures which contribute to the effectiveness of the Family Council technique, it also reveals several weaknesses in the program. First, there exists no formal link between Family Council techniques and relevant motivational theories of organizational/individual behavior. While "theory merely for theory's sake" should be sparingly advocated, there is considerable value in having a theoretical model linked to empirical procedures. This value is mainly realized when empirical procedures fail to reach the desired level of effectiveness.

Where program effectiveness has been limited, the availability of a theoretical model will often help to pin-point the cause and also serve to guide corrective efforts. At present the Dreikurs' technique has theoretical linkages with the psychic compensating mechanism (social interest driving forces) postulated by Adler. Undoubtedly the basic human/social orientation of the Family Council technique flows from this ideological base. Unfortunately, this emphasis leads to a neglect of other causal and operational factors in the technique's overall design. This deficiency could easily be remedied by the informal use of multi-component motivational models such as the expectancy/valence one to augment the professional tools available to the practitioner for gaining better theoretical insights into the operational aspects of the Family Council. Finally, one must be acutely aware of the negative consequences that can arise from group goal setting. Lack of acceptance of task goals, goals that are too easy or too difficult, goals that are perceived as being too rigid or not specific enough will all cause undesirable changes in the perceived credibility of the entire group effort leading to a general lack of individual or group achievement. Great care must be taken by the persons leading the group, be they parents, educators, or managers, to ensure that the general parameters of the group effort, are well specified, understood by the individual members, and, most important, truly accepted as personal goals of the concerned individual.

Cognitive Limitations to Planning

The cause of this failure to attain future goals may not reside in the individual, but rather it may be indicative of society as a whole. Linstone (1973, 1974) discusses a major psychological process that affects virtually all planning whether it occurs at the social, familial, or industrial level. This is the concept that without conscious realization, people tend to discount the future. In the same manner that a banker "discounts" future dollars because he is uncertain of their future value, a person discounts future facts of uncertain value and impact in comparison with facts which relate to the here and now.

> "A bitter lesson which every forecaster and planner learns is that the vast majority of his clientele has a very short planning horizon as well as a short memory. Most people are really only concerned with their immediate neighborhood in space and time. Occurrences which appear to be far removed from the present position are heavily discounted. Moreover, the degree of discounting may well vary with the individual's cultural and social status. A person at the bottom of Maslow's human values pyramid will discount environmental pollution much more heavily than someone near the top. The poor, for whom survival is a daily challenge, are hardly going to lose much sleep over a pollution or population crisis twenty years in the future . . . Apparently discounting acts in both directions - future and past. A crisis about to happen is discounted little, while events a generation in the future or in the past are discounted severely." (1973, p. 335)

Linstone feels that there are only two techniques that will offset the discounting phenomenon. One is to move the crisis or opportunity close in terms of time and space until it is within the average person's current field of perception or planning horizon. The other technique is to extend the person's planning horizon until he or she can grasp the true dimensions of a given problem. The technique of contracting time and space is frequently used in investigative journalism where a 'large crisis' is discussed and then related to happenings in a person's own immediate sphere of activities under the familiar, "This could happen right here in Canada - even in your own home town." The second technique, that of developing the perspective of the individual, is a fundamental objective of the education system although the capacity of the education system to achieve this objective has not been, to a large degree, demonstrated.

In a later paper Linstone (1974) states that there are basically four forecasting 'species':

1. Discounters - This most common type has an interest only in near term problems,is disinterested in forecasts, and operates on a day to day "improvisation" basis.
2. Extrapolators - This is the second most common type of individual. Here the future is seen as an extension of the past. Persons in this group use trends, extrapolations - models based on the past and similar tools to guide and plan their activities. The use of these tools results in a characteristic emphasis on data and empericism.

3. Goal Setters - This small group of individuals operates from the basic premise that the future can be created. This approach is functionally idealistic. It places heavy emphasis on needs analyses, imagination and vision. Values are stressed and new models or solutions, not based on past structures, are sought.

4. Cybeneticists - Here the focus is on the combining of past and future approaches, the use of feedback mechanisms, multiple methodologies and the interaction of exploratory and normative forecasting. The emphasis of this group in on adaptive solutions and alternative futures which can be communicated and used to structure future events.

Linstone recognizes that the "four planning species" are in reality only general groupings;and that while the first two types are relatively common, and the third type present in some strength, the fourth type of person is relatively rare. In addition, Linstone does not present these four groups as absolute, rather, they are intended to remind us that forecasting or even attempting to determine the future consequences of present events may be rendered impossible because of a lack of skills and knowledges. Even an accurate estimate of the outcomes of events may be discounted by individuals, communities or nations, not out of a perverse or stubborn refusal to accept the facts but simply out of an inability to relate future events to the here and now. Since appreciation of the futurity of present actions greatly influence the normal operating range of the individual, we should focus our attention on other aspects of planning as it relates to the home, the school and other social institutions.

In Linstone's taxonomy, a family that successfully made use of the Family Council would represent a mixture of "goal setters" and "cyberneticists". Certainly Dreikurs' basic propositions regarding the development of social conscience (or if you will, a sense of humanity) and the understanding of natural and logical consequences of personal actions are closely related to Linstone's view that the individual's field of planning perception must be expanded if the ramifications of social problems are to be grasped.

> "A narrative cannot communicate a painting by Van Gogh, neither can it communicate a future urban or business environment. A picture cannot communicate a ballet as performed by Nureyev and it cannot depict a societal breakdown. It is significant that some artists have been able to communicate complex futures far more effectively than any other technological forecaster I know of. Just consider Orwell's 1984 and Burgess' A Clockwork Orange." (Linstone, 1974, p. 45)

> "Communication goes beyond words - we all know the impact of a look, a gesture, and how these can gladden or hurt. We are becoming aware of the meaning of other wordless communication as well." (Dreikurs et al, 1974, p. 19)

While Cleland (1974) has outlined the salient characteristics of formal planning systems, in an organizational setting of any degree of complexity, what sort of planning system might be used if a comprehensive one is not present? Steiner (1969, 1974) argues that there are just two basic planning models: the intuitive-anticipatory model and the formal comprehensive planning system.

For Steiner the intuitive-anticipatory model has certain major characteristics:

1. Generally it is the work of one person
2. It seldom provides a formal, written set of plans
3. It has a comparatively short time horizon and also a short reaction time
4. It is based on past experience, the 'gut feel', the 'judgement'

Steiner points out that this model is an important one and that it is fundamentally based on the creativity of the person who is the group leader. Steiner admits that, "many managers have extraordinary capacities to intuitively devise brilliant strategies and methods to carry them out." (1974, p. 326) This very statement contains the principal difficulty with the intuitive-anticipatory approach, which for want of a better term can be described as the fault being personnel sensitive. In the hands of a brilliant, creative manager, this method can have startling results, but these results are the results of the interaction of one man with the organizational environment - the process itself has no robustness aside from the personal characteristics of the key person. It cannot provide the managers with skills, it can only make use of the ones that the person brings into the decision making environment. Results, therefore, may be said to stem from the person rather than from the process itself.

The formal planning system on the other hand, demonstrates the following characteristics:

1. It is organized and developed on the basis of a set of formal procedures
2. It is explicit: people know what is being done
3. It is empirically (research) based
4. It involves the work of many people
5. It results in a set of formal plans and/or agreements which are often in written form

From our review of the role of task-goal attributes and performance it is apparent that the formal planning process accommodates many of the requirements necessary for enhanced group performance: goal specificity, group participation, goal acceptance, etc. Accordingly, the formal planning system has characteristics which provide, by their very nature, a measure of decision robustness which is far less sensitive to the personal characteristics of the central person because the role of decision-maker is diffused over the entire group.

Steiner points out that these two methods often clash because the formal planning system places additional constraints on the central authority figures of the decisional process. Obviously as more people participate in planning systems the role of central authorities decreases. Yet, Steiner argues that there really should be no formal-intuitive conflict as they complement each other because the two planning systems are coextensive with each other. This fundamental notion of co-extensiveness is recognized by those authors who propose extending the traditional intuitive-anticipatory approach through its merging with a formal planning process.

As it was reviewed earlier, the Family Council technique is fundamentally a formal planning technique and many of its basic propositions are designed to provide a buffer that eases the transition from an intuitive approach to a system that includes many of the aspects of a formal planning system. For example, conflict arising from the transferrence of decisional authority from a few key people to the group is dealt with by the fundamental proposition that human beings can only function as equals. A desirable state resulting from the application of the proposition and which is provided by Dreikurs as a behavioral target is that power is based not on positional or authority factors but on experience and expert knowledge. Clearly Dreikurs anticipated, as did Steiner, problems that could arise when a formal planning system is introduced.

Values and Moral Judgement Strategies

Thus far our discussion has centered around considerations of the relationship of an organization to formal planning models, and how these models might serve the organizational needs that exist within a family. In this discussion we have drawn upon a large body of psychological literature supported by selected empirical studies from the field of management science to demonstrate that formal planning models can be utilized at the level of the family and that a major technique advocated for use in the family setting, in fact, conforms to the characteristics which identify a formal planning system.

Unfortunately, there is little guidance to be obtained from the field of management science which directly bears on systems for clarifying values or for developing moral judgements, except where these areas are directly related to the work environment. Yet, the clarification of social and personal values and the development of moral judgement abilities are objectives of prime importance at the family level and ones which often involve educators in the role of supplying support and encouragement to the primary family effort.

Fortunately, the importance of these matters have long been recognized by educators, psychologists, and other professionals interested in the areas of humanistic and developmental psychology. While the full ramifications of these issues are beyond the scope of the present study, if we accept Cleland's (1974) premise that a formal planning system must be concerned with the futurity of present decisions, carry out the identification and dissemination of essential values, objectives and goals, and develop a guiding conceptual framework; then the concerns of the formal planning system closely parallel the approaches of authors such as Simon, Howe and Kirschenbaum (1972) who encourage the use of strategies,

> "which help students become aware of the beliefs and behaviors they prize and would be willing to stand up for in and out of the classroom. He (the teacher) uses materials and methods which encourage students to consider alternative modes of thinking and acting. Students learn to weigh the pros and cons and the consequences of the various alternatives. The teacher also helps the students to consider whether their actions match their

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> stated beliefs and if not, how to bring the two into closer harmony. Finally, he tries to give students options, in and out of class; for only when students begin to make their own choices and evaluate the actual consequences, do they develop their own values." (1972, p. 20)

Simon, Howe and Kirschenbaum's approach does not aim to instill any particular set of values in the child. Rather it is a set of "thought experiments" by which the child can explore and think through the value related issues present in a series of problems. By studying these issues in detail the individual can more clearly discern the particular values they hold in relation to the problem, in relation to those values held by their peers, and in relation to those values put forward by the teacher/moderator assisting them with the procedure. Combs, Richards and Richards (1976) in reviewing the humanistic approaches to the study of persons suggests that a value-clarifying approach such as that of Simon, Howe and Kirschenbaum (1972) is,

> "by no means a panacea, but it certainly represents an important and useful contribution to the humanization of education. Our public schools have long been preoccupied with the cognitive-informational aspects of learning. Affective-perceptual aspects have largely been left to chance. There is increasing recognition, however, that a truly effective educational system must be humanistically oriented to encourage the growth of the learner as a person as well as knower or behaver. To provide such education requires a humanistic psychology concerned with the interrelationships between behavior and human

> experience. Techniques like values clarification, designed to help young people explore and develop their values and beliefs, are important steps toward humanizing education." (1976, p. 137)

As Combs, Richards and Richards (1976) indicate, value-clarifying techniques are strategies which supply a conceptual framework for the identification and study of values held by the individual and like the more general planning models proposed by Steiner (1974) and Cleland (1974), Simon, Howe, and Kirschenbaum's (1972) approach serves as a technique by which a philosophical content area/body of literature may be translated into a design for daily living.

In the case of value-clarifying models, the body of literature is based on humanistic models of psychosocial development and includes authors in the existentialist tradition such as Vicktor Frankl (1967) and Rollo May (1953), cognitive theorists such as Kohlberg and Gilligan (1971) and Kohlberg and Mayer (1972), and the earlier humanistic psychologists such as Maslow (1959). For a thorough treatment of this topic the reader is referred to the excellent overview of humanistic psychology prepared by Buhler and Allen (1972) which directly addresses itself to the role of humanistic psychology in briding the rift between students and society, or the equally comprehensive reviews by Combs, Richards and Richards (1976) or Severin (1973).

The Literature - A Summary Statement

Our discussion of the literature has been based on the proposition that the relation between family and school influences and a drug inclusive lifestyle may be best understood by examining the home decisional environment of the individual from an organization perspective. From this approach counter-cultural manifestations such as drug use may represent basic failures in the planning-decisional structure of the home, possibly due to the failure of the home to move beyond the intuitive-adaptive approach to decision making.

The review of the literature reveals that adequate planning systems are concerned with: the future consequences of present decisions, the identification and dissemination of strategic values, and objectives, the development of a guiding conceptual framework to provide a mechanism for creating strategy to deal with a wide range of problems and opportunities, and the development of an overall complex of plans to establish future directions.

We have reviewed how at least one technique, Dreikurs', for solving family problems fits the conceptual model of a comprehensive planning system. Major stumbling blocks to the implementation of such planning systems were examined. Resistance to planning was thought to stem from two sources, fear of the unknown and adherence to long term practice. Lack of motivation to accept change or to improve performance was explored and goal specificity, participation in goal setting, knowledge of results, peer competition, goal difficulty, and goal acceptance were found to be key variables in establishing motivatonal processes in the organizational setting. The role cf expectancy-valence theory in understanding often contradictory empirical findings in the task-goal-performance triad was discussed as well as the theory's impact on management decisions. Considerable attention was devoted to gaining insight into the cognitive limitations of planners especially as they relate to the 'crisis discounting processes', planning/cognitive style, and to the failure of our communications mechanisms to adequately describe the future problems so that contemporary plans can be adjusted to further the futurity of present decisions. The coextensiveness of the intuitive-anticipatory approach and the comprehensive planning approach were examined. It was a general finding that these two viewpoints need not be antagonistic, rather they could be mutually beneficial.

Chapter 2

INSTRUMENT AND HYPOTHESES

Instrument

The instrument used was an adaptation of the questionnaire developed by Larson (1969A, 1969B) and used in his study of the structure of salient social influences during adolescence. The format and many of the items contained in the instrument were used because they provided some important advantages:

1. The study itself was based on a well prepared analysis of a large number of studies (drawn from sociological sources) examining the question of socializing influence within a sociological frame of reference. It successfully pulled together many diverse aspects of previous research and established relationships between disparate components. It was extensively pre-tested and considerable evidence exists supporting its overall validity.
2. A large sample of adolescent and parent responses was obtained permitting comparisons of future studies with a relatively stable, well-defined data base.

However, the questionnaire as it was originally designed was developed to test sociological constructs and the data analysis procedure which Larson used introduced significant limitations to the analysis of the data in terms of the psychological body of literature. The use of the results was especially limited because the influence of family decisions was not explored in sufficient detail. Other limitations are detailed in the following points:

1. While student data was linked to the parent data; this linkage was not utilized to compare the perception of individual students with those of their own parents (e.g. parents' perception of behavioral influences could not be easily compared with the perceptions of their children who participated in the student survey).

2. There was excessive detail in the parents' questionnaire in that both the mother and the father were each asked to fill out a long questionnaire which resulted in a low rate of response from this segment of the study. This reduced the sample available for analysis to a considerable degree and in this case the "trade-off" of extra information for a smaller sample size was not advantageous to the experimenter.

3. The study was conducted in a small community (population 11,000) and this would considerably limit the generalization of its findings to the general urban population.

4. The study data were almost wholly analyzed using a hierarchical clustering technique. While this method was appropriate to the sociological models under test, it was limited in its power to produce a clear picture of the data.

Student Questionnaire

With these points in mind, the present questionnaire was constructed. In order to provide some illumination of the "high risk family concept" mentioned in both the Interim and the Final Reports of the Commission of Inquiry into the Non Medical Use of Drugs, specific questions on the ethnic origin of parents, principal language spoken, and family religion, family structure, work patterns of parents, size of family, and occupation of head of household were prepared.

A section on drug use by the individual student, his parents, and siblings, including kind of drug used, frequency and duration of use, and parental knowledge of drug use was included. Wherever possible these items were comparable with those used in studies conducted by the Addiction Research Foundation in Ontario and the Narcotic Addiction Foundation of British Columbia. This standardization of drug use items was carried out to facilitate cross-provincial comparisons.

A section dealing with attitudes and perceptions towards teachers, parents, and best friends attempted in some detail to define the sources of influence and the various behavior models adopted by the students. This section as well as a number of items detailing how decisions were arrived at within individual families was developed, largely based on the items used in Larson's previously discussed study. The student instrument is reproduced in Appendix "A".

Parent Questionnaire

The parent instrument is a very short form and was largely drawn from Larson's (1969B) version. In the present version, a single instrument was provided for both parents to fill out as a group. If the child was from a single parent home or a "no parent home", the actual head of the household was asked to complete the form. The parent questionnaire contains items analogous to the student questionnaire on the decision structure of home, as well as perceptions of the school, home and community. When matched with the students' responses, the responses of the parent were analyzed to examine the amount of congruence or disparity within the members of the family unit concerning the decisional structure of the home and perceived sources of behavioral influence. The parent questionnaire is reproduced in Appendix "B".

Instrument Stability

Both the parent questionnaire and the student questionnaire were administered in a test-retest situation to a group of 74 parents and 208 students, once in a morning session and the second time in an afternoon session on the same day. The test-retest Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients for each item on the parent questionnaire are listed in Appendix "C", Table C-1. Similarly derived Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients for the student questionnaire are also listed in Appendix "C", Table C-2. These coefficients, which are really coefficients of stability, were all in the range of .720-.998 and indicated that the questionnaire could be readily understood by the persons taking the test. As the instruments largely used simple nominal scales, problems of item difficulty and item discrimination did not arise.

Sample

The sample consists of approximately 1,000 grade 7 to 9 students from seven Edmonton schools (3 separate, 4 public). The schools were selected by the two school boards as being generally representative of all of the schools in the system. Further, within each system a representative "new" neighborhood, "well established" neighborhood, and "older" neighborhood school was identified and its residents participated in the survey. There was no sampling within individual schools as the entire grade 7 to 9 population participated in the survey. It should be noted that experimenter had little choice in the identification of the representative schools; however, as the selection list was established by the professional researcher of each of the two boards, it is reasonable to accept their choice as a valid representative sample. The internal strata of the sample, being based on neighborhood age was subjected to a differential analysis to determine that it was a significant sample characteristic.

The parent questionnaire was administered to the parents of the student sample via a take-home packet. Response rate was excellent and a preliminary linkage yielded approximately 535 family units spread approximately equally over the schools of the two systems. Where more than one child from an individual family attended a school, one child was randomly chosen to be compared with his or her parents.

Psychological Hypotheses

The statement of the Commission of Inquiry into the Non Medical Use of Drugs concerning the high risk family can be summed up in a number of discrete statements spread over a number of operational areas:

AFFECTIVE STRUCTURE OF THE HOME

High Risk - Poor communication, lack of perceived affection-parents uncertain of roles and fall back on intellectualized approach to problems

Low Risk - Warm and happy relations in home, family is forgiving and like each other

DECISIONAL FRAMEWORK OF HOME

Participation in Decisions

High Risk - Mother dominant, father lacking in leadership parents permissive stressing "freedom"

Low Risk - Leadership from father - authoritative but not autocratic, personal freedoms of child based on responsibility

Sources of Input to Decisional Processes

High Risk - Dependent on approval and guidance of others

Low Risk - Resistant to group pressure, more independent in judgements

With the above points in mind, it is hypothesized that:

AFFECTIVE STRUCTURE OF THE HOME

1. Lack of perceived affection in the home environment will be accompanied by an increase in the non-medical use of drugs by children living in such homes.
2. Communication difficulty in the home will be significantly related to the non-medical use of drugs by children from such homes.

DECISIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE HOME

3. Mother dominant two parent homes will have a higher incidence of child non-medical drug use than traditional, father dominant homes, or homes in which major decision are made on a joint basis by both parents.
4. Users of non-medical drugs will demonstrate greater receptivity to the influences of peer groups, as opposed parents, than non-users of non-medical drugs.

The analysis of the data focused on the behavioral influences of:

1. Parental decision processes, including the level of involvement of the child in the home-decision process and the testing of father/mother dominance effects
2. The affective structures of the home
3. Intra-family communication

on drug use or the decision not to use drugs on a non-medical basis.

Chapter 3

RESULTS, DISCUSSION, AND CONCLUSIONS

The Affective Structure of the Home

The Commission of Inquiry into the Non Medical Use of Drugs felt that a key area in the shaping of an individual's decisional framework was the affective structure of the home; including the ability to communicate within the home setting, the degree of perceived affection, the ability of the parents to play the "actor" role, stressing the mutual bond of affection between parent and child even under the day to day stresses of a home where adolescents are striving to assume their adult roles. The defining statement of the affective relationship in the home is simple, "Do the family members like each other."

The brief question, "I like my child very much" was posed to the parent respondents in the present study. Their responses are tabulated in Table III-1.

Table III-1

Genuine Liking of Child - Parents' Responses

		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	TOTAL
I like my child	N	374	51	2	101	528
very much:	%	70.8%	9.7%	.4%	19.1%	100%

From table III-1 it is apparent that a sizeable majority of parents agree that they genuinely like their children (N=425, 80.5%); however, one fifth of all parents (N=103, 19.5%) indicated that they did not agree that they like their children and nearly all of those who did not agree held the polar position of "strongly diagree" (N=101, 19.2%).

Parents on the other hand fared much better at the hands of their children. Table III-2 gives the findings of the parallel statement of table III-1 which was posed to the student respondents.

Table III-2

Genuine Liking of Parent - Students' Responses

		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	TOTAL
I like my parents very much	N= %	320 61.5%	158 30.4%	26 5.0%	16 3.1%	522 100%

As shown in this table, less than nine percent of the students surveyed (N=42, 8.1%) disagreed with this statement, and almost two-thirds (N=320, 61.5%) of the students elected to hold the most positive, polar position of "strongly agree" in terms of how well they liked their parents.

Nor did this general feeling of affection for significant individuals in the students' environment end at the front door of the home, in a parallel question directed to tap affective feelings towards teachers, students gave the following responses (table III-3).

Table III-3

Genuine Liking of Teachers: Students' Responses

		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	TOTAL
I like my teachers very much	N= %	59 11.2%	216 41.3%	201 38.5%	47 9%	523 100%

A little over one-half (52.5%) of the students agreed that they liked their teachers very much. While slightly more than two hundred students (38.5%) held some negative feelings towards their teachers less than ten per cent (N=47, 9%) held the "strongly disagree" polar position.

The response to the teacher-affection question of table III-3 points out that the response on these questions probably reflects the true feeling of the respondents, and is influenced only slightly by social desirability. As the questionnaire was administered in the school setting, had social desirability been a determining criterion for answering, then one would have expected a pronounced shift towards the most positive portions of the four point scale to make the teachers 'look good' to the researchers. Such a shift is not evident. This finding if taken with the thirty-five percent of the students who placed their feeling for their parents in the agree-disagree categories suggests that the response is mediated more by the respondent's genuine feelings than by a desire to provide a socially desirable answer.

Parents are often called upon to be actors in the social framework of the home. The extent to which parents consciously act as if they like their child is tabulated in table III-4.

Table III-4

Acting-Liking of Child: Parents' Responses

		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	TOTAL
I always act as if I like my child	N=	146	190	85	96	517
	%	28.1%	36.9%	16.5%	18.5%	100%

Nearly two-thirds of the parents (N=336, 65%) agreed that they always acted as if they liked their child. This acting role is not lost on the students being surveyed whose responses to a parallel question are given in table III-5.

Table III-5

Student Perception of Affection of Parents

		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	TOTAL
My parents always act as if they like me	N= %	178 35.4%	174 34.7%	105 20.3%	50 9.7%	507 100%

More than two-thirds of the students surveyed (N=252, 70.3%) perceived their parents as always acting as if they liked them. While nineteen percent of the parents expressed genuine dislike for their children, and while almost nineteen percent of the parents surveyed made little attempt to act as if they liked their children, only about one-half of this percentage (9.7%, N=50) of students surveyed held perceptions which strongly disagreed with the statement that their parents always acted as if they liked them.

The transmission of the affective component within the home is most clearly seen in table III-6 which is a cross-tabulation of the information of tables III-1 and III-2 with the categories of agreement and disagreement grouped to form a 2 X 2 contingency table.

Table III-6 reveals no significant departures between parents' expressed affection for their children and their children's expressed affection for their parents. The overall level of concordance was 76.1% and the errors in perception were (reflected in the off diagonal entries) in the direction of an over estimation by the students as

Table III-6

Parents' Genuine Liking of Child by Child's Liking of Parent

		Students: I like my parents very much			
		AGREE	DIS-AGREE	TOTAL	%
Parents: I like my child very much	AGREE	378	32	410	80.6
	DISAGREE	90	9	99	19.4
	TOTAL	468	41	509	100.0
	TOTAL %	91.9	8.1		
	Percentage by Rows				
	AGREE	92.9	7.8		
	DISAGREE	90.9	9.1		
	Percentage by Columns				
	AGREE	80.8	78.0		
	DISAGREE	19.2	22.0		
	Percentage by Total				
	AGREE	74.3	6.3		
	DISAGREE	17.7	1.8		

Chi Squared=.178 with DF=1, P>.60

(Based on Tables III-1 and III-2)

to their parents actually liking them (17.7%) as opposed to 6.3% of the students who felt that their parents did not like them, contrary to the statement of their respective parent.

The ability of parents to act successfully as if they like their children is demonstrated in table III-7. This table is a cross-tabulation of the 2 X 2 grouping of the agreement/disagreement categories of tables III-4 and III-5.

The findings outlined in table III-7 failed to reach statistical significance, accordingly it appears that children are quite able to characterize the actions of their parents with regard to affective feelings. However, the parent as an actor is not as effective as the parent who deals from a base of genuine affection. This is noticeable in the lower level of concordance (67.3%) and the only slight difference between the students' over and under - estimation errors of 23.8% vs. 18.9%.

Table III-7

Parents' - Act as if Like Child by Students' Perceptions of Parents' Action

		Students: My parents always act as if they like me			
		AGREE	DIS-AGREE	TOTAL	%
Parents: I always act as if I like my child	AGREE	223	92	315	64.7
	DISAGREE	339	56	172	35.3
	TOTAL	562	148	487	100.0
	TOTAL %	69.6			

Percentage by Rows

AGREE	70.8	29.2
DISAGREE	67.4	32.6

Percentage by Columns

AGREE	65.8	62.2
DISAGREE	34.2	37.8

Percentage by Total

AGREE	45.8	18.9
DISAGREE	23.8	11.5

Chi Squared=.591 with DF=1, P>.40

(Based on Tables III-4 and III-5)

Drug Use and the Affective Structure of the Home

Table III-6 revealed no significant departures between parents' expressed affection for their children and their children's expressed affection for their parents.

When other cross-tabulated data provided in table III-6 is subdivided by drug user category (table III-8), no significant relationships are found either within or between the three user categories.

A variable of central interest in the present study was drug use (item 22 on the student questionnaire). Initially this item had five categories, three user categories and two non-user categories. The user categories were differentiated into those students who were still using drugs, those students who had used drugs and might use them again, and those students who had used drugs but who felt they would not use them again. The non-user category was divided into two groups, those who had not used drugs but who might like to try them and those who had not used drugs and did not feel that they were going to use them. Because of low cell frequency these categories were regrouped into a single user category which contained all the people who had ever used drugs including those who were presently using them, those who might use them again and those who had used them and were no longer using them and did indicate they would not be using them again. The non-user category was grouped into two groups, potential users - those who had not used drugs but who indicated they might like to try them and non-users - those who had not used drugs and who had no intention of

Table III-8

Parents' Genuine Liking of Child by
Child's Liking of Parents
Subdivided by Drug Use Category

User Group

	Students			
Parents	AGREE	DIS-AGREE	TOTAL	%
AGREE	26	5	31	79.5
DISAGREE	6	2	8	20.5
TOTAL	32	7	39	100.0
TOTAL %	82.1	17.9		

Percentage by Rows

AGREE	83.9	16.1
DISAGREE	75.0	25.0

Percentage by Columns

AGREE	81.3	71.4
DISAGREE	18.9	28.6

Percentage by Total

AGREE	66.7	12.8
DISAGREE	15.0	5.1

Chi Squared corrected for continuity=.0004
with DF=1, P>.90

Table III-8
(continued)

Potential User Group

	Students			
Parents	AGREE	DIS-AGREE	TOTAL	%
AGREE	52	7	59	75.6
DISAGREE	18	1	19	24.4
TOTAL	70	8	78	100.0
TOTAL %	89.7	10.3		
Percentage by Rows				
AGREE	88.1	11.9		
DISAGREE	94.7	5.3		
Percentage by Columns				
AGREE	74.3	87.5		
DISAGREE	25.7	12.5		
Percentage by Total				
AGREE	66.7	9.0		
DISAGREE	23.1	1.3		

Chi Squared=.152 with DF=1. P<.70

Table III-8
(continued)

Non-User Group

	Students			
Parents	AGREE	DIS-AGREE	TOTAL	%
AGREE	297	17	314	81.3
DISAGREE	66	6	72	18.7
TOTAL	363	23	386	100.0
TOTAL %	94.0	6.0		

Percentage by Rows

AGREE	94.6	5.4
DISAGREE	91.7	8.3

Percentage by Columns

AGREE	81.8	73.9
DISAGREE	18.2	26.1

Percentage by Total

AGREE	76.9	4.4
DISAGREE	17.1	1.6

Chi Squared=.445 with DF=1, P >.50

Synopsis of Parent Question: I like my child very much.

Synopsis of Student Question: I like my parents very much.

using them.

Similar findings were revealed when information relating to how parents act towards their children is broken up into drug use categories (table III-9). Again, the results are not significant (P>.09, P>.10, P>.40).

This lack of significant findings casts some doubt on the affective structure of the home as a factor in predicting drug use. However, some severe limitations must be attached to this statement, and the statement is thoroughly reviewed in the conclusions study of this report.

Table III-9

Parents' Act as if They Like Child by Students' Perception of Parents' Acting Subdivided by Drug User Category

User Group

	Students			
Parents	AGREE	DIS-AGREE	TOTAL	%
AGREE	15	6	21	56.8
DISAGREE	7	9	16	43.2
TOTAL	22	15	37	100.0
TOTAL %	59.5	40.5		

Percentage by Rows

AGREE	71.4	28.6
DISAGREE	43.8	56.3

Percentage by Columns

AGREE	68.2	40.0
DISAGREE	31.4	60.0

Percentage by Total

AGREE	40.5	16.2
DISAGREE	18.9	24.3

Chi Squared=2.89 with DF=1, P>.08

Table III-9
(continued)

Potential User Group

Students

Parents	AGREE	DIS-AGREE	TOTAL	%
AGREE	28	21	49	65.3
DISAGREE	19	7	26	34.7
TOTAL	47	28	75	100.0
TOTAL %	62.7	37.3		

Percentage by Rows

AGREE	57.1	42.9
DISAGREE	73.1	26.9

Percentage by Columns

AGREE	37.3	75.0
DISAGREE	25.3	25.0

Percentage by Total

AGREE	37.3	28.0
DISAGREE	25.3	9.3

Chi Squared=1.545 with DF=1, P>.10

Table III-9
(continued)

Non-User Group

	Students			
Parents	AGREE	DIS-AGREE	TOTAL	%
AGREE	177	65	242	65.2
DISAGREE	90	39	129	34.8
TOTAL	267	104	371	100.0
TOTAL %	72.0	28.0		
Percentage by Rows				
AGREE	73.1	26.9		
DISAGREE	69.8	30.2		
Percentage by Columns				
AGREE	66.3	62.5		
DISAGREE	33.7	37.5		
Percentage by Total				
AGREE	47.7	17.5		
DISAGREE	24.3	10.5		

Chi Squared=.475 with DF=1, P<.40

Synopsis of Parent Question: I always act as if I like my child.

Synopsis of Student Question: My parents always act as if they like me.

Decisional Framework of the Home

In the last five decades, significant changes have occurred in the patterns of decision making in the Canadian home. A key area of investigation in the present study is the decisional pattern in the home. The fundamental question investigated was, "Who makes major decisions within the home context?" The tabulation of this information for the present study is given in III-10.

Table III-10

Description of How Important Family Decisions are Made

N.	%	Description of Process
20	4.0	Usually, I make the decision without first discussing the matter with my spouse.
40	8.0	Usually, I discuss the matter with my spouse and then I make the decision more or less by myself.
409	81.8	Usually, both my spouse and I talk over the matter with each other and then we both make the decision more or less together.
22	4.4	Usually, my spouse discusses the matter with me and then he makes the decision more or less by himself.
9	1.8	Usually, my spouse makes the decision without first discussing the matter with me.
500	100.0%	

The majority (81.8%) of respondents indicated that family decisions were made on a joint basis. However, 12.4% of the respondents indicated that decisions were made on an 'advise and consent' basis, and 5.8% of the parents indicated that major decisions were made by one spouse, alone and without consultation with the other spouse.

A strong suggestion of the Commission of Inquiry into the Non

Medical Use of Drugs was that high risk families were those in which the mother was dominant and the father lacking in leadership.

In the present study, information on the number of mother dominant homes was gathered from a subdivision of the description of how decisions were made in the home by the sex of the parent. The result of this subdivision is given in table III-11.

Table III-11

Dominant Parent in Family Decisions

N	%	
		Male Parent Dominant
7	1.6	Usually, I make the decision without first discussing the matter with my wife.
30	7.1	Usually, I discuss the matter with my wife and then I make the decision more or less by myself.
		Female Parent Dominant
26	6.1	Usually, I make the decision without first discussing the matter with my husband.
12	2.8	Usually, I discuss the matter with my husband and then I make the decision more or less by myself.
		Joint Decision Making
349	82.4	Usually, both my spouse and I talk over the matter with each other and then we both make the decision more or less togather.
425	100.0%	

Table III-11 indicates that 8.9% of the parents surveyed indicated that most decisions were made by the female parent either by herself (6.1% of the cases) or after consultation with her spouse (2.8%). This high percentage is understandable if one considers that the survey included twenty-eight single parent homes where the head of the household was the female parent. On this basis only ten homes or about 2.3% of those homes surveyed contained a decisional situation which could be classified as 'mother dominated'.

The students' perceptions of the home decisional process are also of interest and as reported in table III-12, which indicates that students perceive far less joint decision making in the home than do parents. Further, mothers are seen as having considerably more influence on home decisions than in the ratings given by parents. The number of homes with traditional dominant father decisional systems was also perceived by students to be larger.

A cross-tabulation of parent and student responses on this question is given in table III-13. The findings outlined in this table are statistically significant. There is a considerable difference between student perceptions of parent dominance and the descriptive statements made by the parents themselves.

Drug Use and Parental Dominance

When the findings of table III-13 are subdivided by using the three-way drug user categories as a controlling variable, the difference in parent student perceptions appear as statistically significant "within" effects. However, there is no significant 'between' user category effects. Accordingly, on the basis of the present study, the hypothesis that the mother dominant home is a 'high risk' factor related to drug use advocated by the Commission of Inquiry into the Non Medical Use of Drugs can not be supported.

Table III-12

Students' Perception of Home Decision Framework

N	%	
34	7.3	Usually, my father makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my mother.
54	11.7	Usually, my father discusses the matter with my mother and then he makes the decision more or less by himself.
304	65.7	Usually, both of my parents talk over the matter with each other and then they both make the decision more or less together.
32	6.9	Usually, my mother discusses the matter with my father and then she makes the decision more or less by herself.
39	8.4	Usually, my mother makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my father.
463	100.0%	

Table III-13

Parent Perceptions of Home Decision Structure by Student Perception of Home Decision Structure

Students		Parents		
N	%	N	%	
34	7.3	7	1.6	Usually, my father makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my mother.
54	11.7	30	7.1	Usually, my father discusses the matter with my mother and then he makes the decision more or less by himself.
39	8.4	12	2.8	Usually, my mother makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my father.
32	6.9	26	6.1	Usually, my mother discusses the matter with my father and then she makes the decision more or less by herself.
304	65.7	349	82.4	Usually, both of my parents talk over the matter with each other and then they both make the decision more or less together.
463	100.0%	425	100.0%	Chi Squared=11.40 with DF=3, P>.01

When we shift our focus to student perception of parental dominance in decision making and examine those available cross-tabulations with drug user categories, we find that the results are not statistically significant, that in fact the majority of all users, potential users, and non-users arise from homes where family decisions are made on a joint basis (table III-14). Further, when we group styles of parental decision making into three categories: autocractic, that is where a single parent makes the final decision; authoritative, situations where joint discussion are held but in which the final decision is made by one parent or the other; and participative, situations in which decision making is made on a fully equal and joint basis, we discover that there are signficant differences between categories of drug users (table III-15). An examination of this table reveals that fully 13% of drug users come from homes in which the decision making is largely autocratic. This is significantly different from the distribution of parental management styles observed in the homes of potential users and non-users.

The summary statement to be arrived at from these tables based on the responses gathered in the present study is that there is no evidence supporting the Commission of Inquiry into the Non Medical Use of Drugs' suggestion that mother dominant homes offer a higher risk environment than traditional/father dominant homes or homes in which both parents participate in decisions.

On the other hand there is some evidence to suggest that autocratic homes where a single parent makes decisions without consultation do in fact constitute an increased risk environment for drug use.

Table III-14

Perceived Parental Dominance in Decision Making By
Drug Use Categories

USERS		POTENTIAL USERS		NON-USERS		TOTAL	DESCRIPTIVE STATEMENT
N	%	N	%	N	%		
2	6.5	3	4.1	10	3.1	15	Usually, my father makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my mother.
2	6.5	6	8.1	27	8.3	35	Usually, my father discusses the matter with my mother and then he makes the decision more or less my himself.
24	77.4	59	79.7	272	83.4	335	Usually, both of my parents talk over the matter with each other and then they both make the decision more or less together.
1	3.2	3	4.1	14	4.3	17	Usually, my mother discusses the matter with my father and then she makes the decision more or less by herself.
2	6.5	3	4.1	3	.9	8	Usually, my mother makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my father.
31	100.0%	74	100.0%	326	100.0%	431	Chi Squared=12.1 with DF=8, P>.10

Table III-15

Perceived Parental Decision Style and Drug Use Categories

Drug Use Categories

USERS		POTENTIAL USERS		NON-USERS		TOTAL	PERCEIVED PARENTAL DECISION STYLE
N	%	N	%	N	%		
4	13.0	6	8.2	13	4.0	23	Autocratic (Single Parent Decisions)
3	9.7	9	12.2	41	12.6	53	Authoritative (Joint Discussions)
24	77.4	59	79.7	272	83.4	355	Participative (Joint Decision Making)
31	100.0%	74	100.0%	326	100.0%	431	Chi Squared=48.85 with DF=4, P<.001

There is evidence in table III-15 to suggest that potential users also have a relatively high percentage of autocratic home background (8.2% for potential users vs. 4.0% for non-users). The direction of results suggests that the perception of the home as autocratic precedes the decision to use drugs and that the perception that one's home is autocratic probably does not stem from a reactionary process based on the individual's use of drugs.

The Parent-Child Influence Structures

The structure of parent-child influence and perceived parent-child influences can be studied through a number of items that probe perceived influence of the parent by the statement of the child regarding whose ideas he pays most attention to when making an important decision, who has the most influence over his behavior, and who has the most control over the student-respondent's behavior.

Parents' perceptions of pattern of influence as compared with the actual rating of the attention allocated to significant others' ideas are given in table III-16 and are not statistically significant (P>.20).

These findings are partitioned into the three drug use categories in table III-17 to review parent student perceptions for the individual drug user categories.

The major finding of table III-17 was that parents surveyed felt they had more influence over children than friends: user - 80%; potential user - 91%; non-users - 97%. While these differences are not statistically significant, they are in the hypothesized direction. The percentage of respondents making use of the various

Table III-16

Parents' Perceptions of Relative Weight of Their Influence vs Actual Source of Ideas About Major Decision

Student Response
Pay Most Attention To:

PARENTS' INFLUENCE vs FRIENDS' INFLUENCE	BEST FRIENDS	PARENTS	PARENTS BEST FRIENDS EQUAL	TOTAL	%
CONSIDERABLY MORE	27	84	141	252	50.5
SOMEWHAT MORE	35	58	128	221	44.3
SOMEWHAT LESS	2	3	14	19	3.8
CONSIDERABLY LESS	2	2	3	7	1.4
TOTAL	66	147	286	499	100.0
TOTAL %	13.2	29.5	57.3		
Percentage by Rows					
CONSIDERABLY MORE	10.7	33.3	56.0		
SOMEWHAT MORE	15.8	26.2	57.0		
SOMEWHAT LESS	10.5	15.8	73.7		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	28.6	28.6	42.9		
Percentage by Columns					
CONSIDERABLY MORE	40.9	57.1	49.3		
SOMEWHAT MORE	53.0	39.5	44.8		
SOMEWHAT LESS	3.0	2.0	4.9		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	3.0	1.4	1.0		
Percentage by Total					
CONSIDERABLY MORE	5.4	16.8	28.3		
SOMEWHAT MORE	7.0	11.6	25.7		
SOMEWHAT LESS	0.4	0.6	2.8		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.4	0.4	0.6		

Chi Squared=8.198 with DF=6, P>.20

Synopsis of Paren Question: I have considerably more/somewhat more influence than friends; I have somewhat less/considerably less influence than do his friends.

Synopsis of Students' Question: When you are making an important decision, whose ideas do you pay the most attention to?

Table III-17

Parents' Perception of Relative Weight of Their Influence vs Actual Source of Ideas About Major Decisions Subdivided by Drug Use Category

User Group

Student Response
Pay Most Attention To:

PARENTS' INFLUENCE vs FRIENDS' INFLUENCE	BEST FRIENDS	PARENTS	PARENTS BEST FRIENDS EQUAL	TOTAL	%
CONSIDERABLY MORE	2	3	9	14	40.0
SOMEWHAT MORE	5	3	6	14	40.0
SOMEWHAT LESS	0	1	5	6	17.1
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0	1	0	1	2.9
TOTAL	7	8	20	35	100.0
TOTAL %	20.0	22.9	57.1		

Percentage by Rows

	BEST FRIENDS	PARENTS	PARENTS BEST FRIENDS EQUAL
CONSIDERABLY MORE	14.3	21.4	64.3
SOMEWHAT MORE	35.7	21.4	42.9
SOMEWHAT LESS	0.0	16.7	83.3
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.0	100.0	0.0

Percentage by Columns

	BEST FRIENDS	PARENTS	PARENTS BEST FRIENDS EQUAL
CONSIDERABLY MORE	28.6	37.5	45.0
SOMEWHAT MORE	71.4	37.5	30.0
SOMEWHAT LESS	0.0	12.5	25.0
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.0	12.4	0.0

Percentage by Total

	BEST FRIENDS	PARENTS	PARENTS BEST FRIENDS EQUAL
CONSIDERABLY MORE	5.7	8.6	25.7
SOMEWHAT MORE	14.3	8.6	17.1
SOMEWHAT LESS	0.0	2.9	14.3
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.0	2.9	0.0

Chi Squared=8.03 with DF=6, P>.25

Table III-17
(continued)

Potential User Group

PARENTS' INFLUENCE vs FRIENDS' INFLUENCE	Student Response Pay Most Attention To: BEST FRIENDS	PARENTS	PARENTS BEST FRIENDS EQUAL	TOTAL	%
CONSIDERABLY MORE	2	8	20	30	37.5
SOMEWHAT MORE	5	7	31	43	53.8
SOMEWHAT LESS	2	0	4	6	7.5
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0	0	1	1	1.3
TOTAL	9	15	56	80	100.0
TOTAL %	11.3	18.8	70.0		
Percentage by Rows					
CONSIDERABLY MORE	6.7	26.7	66.7		
SOMEWHAT MORE	11.6	16.3	72.1		
SOMEWHAT LESS	33.3	0.0	86.7		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.0	0.0	100.0		
Percentage by Columns					
CONSIDERABLY MORE	22.2	53.3	35.7		
SOMEWHAT MORE	55.6	46.7	55.4		
SOMEWHAT LESS	22.2	0.0	7.1		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.0	0.0	1.8		
Percentage by Total					
CONSIDERABLY MORE	2.5	10.0	25.0		
SOMEWHAT MORE	6.3	8.8	38.8		
SOMEWHAT LESS	2.5	0.0	5.0		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.0	0.0	1.3		

Chi Squared=5.947 with DF=6, P>.40

Table III-17
(continued)

Non-User Group

Student Response
Pay Most Attention To:

PARENTS' INFLUENCE vs FRIENDS' INFLUENCE	BEST FRIENDS	PARENTS	PARENTS BEST FRIENDS EQUAL	TOTAL	%
CONSIDERABLY MORE	22	73	111	206	54.6
SOMEWHAT MORE	22	48	90	160	42.4
SOMEWHAT LESS	0	1	5	6	1.6
CONSIDERABLY LESS	2	1	2	5	1.3
TOTAL	46	123	268	377	100.0
TOTAL %	12.2	32.6	55.2		
Percentage by Rows					
CONSIDERABLY MORE	10.7	35.4	53.9		
SOMEWHAT MORE	13.8	30.0	56.3		
SOMEWHAT LESS	0.0	16.7	83.3		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	40.0	20.0	40.0		
Percentage by Columns					
CONSIDERABLY MORE	47.8	59.3	53.4		
SOMEWHAT MORE	47.9	39.0	43.3		
SOMEWHAT LESS	0.0	0.8	2.4		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	4.3	0.8	1.0		
Percentage by Total					
CONSIDERABLY MORE	5.8	19.4	29.4		
SOMEWHAT MORE	5.8	12.7	23.9		
SOMEWHAT LESS	0.0	0.3	1.3		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.5	0.3	0.5		

Chi Squared=7.321 with DF=6, P>.25

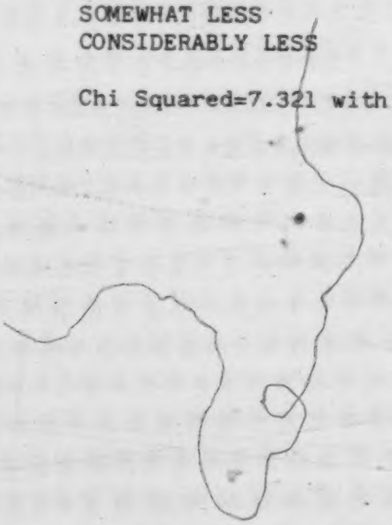

Table III-17
(Summary)

	Student Response Pay Most Attention To:		
	Best Friends	Parents	Both
User	20	22.9	57.1
Potential User	11.2	18.8	70
Non-User	12.2	32.6	55.2

sources of influential ideas are shown in table III-17 (Summary).

While none of the 'within data' of these three tables is statistically significant, there is an interesting directionality to the results. Eight-tenths of the user group parents felt that their influence over their children was greater than that of their children's friends. This value increases steadily as one moves from the user group to the potential user group and finally to the non-user group.

On the other hand, more than half of the user group indicated that they valued both parents' and best friends' ideas. The remainder of the user group were nearly equally divided between parents and best friends as to the major source of influence.

The potential user group was even more 'democratic' in terms of source of influence. Seventy percent of the group valued ideas of both parents and friends, and of those who choose one source or the other, the number of respondents electing their parents as a major source of influence did so in a nearly 2:1 ratio.

The proportion of non-user respondents that used both best friends and parents as a source of influential ideas was nearly identical to the user group. However; the ratio of parents as a major source of influence to best friends was nearly 3:1.

Influence on Behavior

Data relating to parents' perceived influence over their children cross-tabulated with the student respondent statements is given in table III-18, and is higly significant. There is a considerable difference between the perceptions of the parents and those of their children regarding the major source of influence. Parents perceive themselves as being far more influential than they really are. The percentage of parents who felt they had more influence over their children than their children's friends were: user group - 82.9%; potential user group - 91.2%; non-user group - 97.1%.

These results are partitioned into the three user categories in table III-19. The percentage of students who felt their parents had more influence over their behavior than their best friends did was: user group - 45.7%; potential user group - 46.3%; non-user group - 69.1%.

Only one of the three sub-tables of table III-19 reached statistical significance; nor is the direction of results remarkable. Rather, it shows a decline of parental influence as a student entered the drug scene. While the shift in the perception of the respondent-parents followed the decline in actual influence; parents tended to be too optimistic at evaluating just how much influence they actually did have over their children.

Behavioral Control

Influence and sources of decisional ideas do not tap that component of behavioral modification which relates to behavioral control. This aspect of the decisional process was studied and the responses relating parents' perceived weight of influence over

Table III-18

Parents' Perception of Relative Weight of Their Influence vs Students' Perception of Most Influential Agency

PARENTS' PERCEPTION OF INFLUENCE:	Student Perception of Most Influential: PARENTS	BEST FRIEND	TOTAL	%
CONSIDERABLY MORE	183	69	252	50.7
SOMEWHAT MORE	124	96	220	44.3
SOMEWHAT LESS	8	10	18	3.6
CONSIDERABLY LESS	3	4	7	1.4
TOTAL	318	179	497	100.0
TOTAL %	64.0	36.0		

Percentage by Rows

CONSIDERABLY MORE	72.6	27.4
SOMEWHAT MORE	56.4	43.6
SOMEWHAT LESS	44.4	55.6
CONSIDERABLY LESS	42.9	57.1

Percentage by Columns

CONSIDERABLY MORE	57.5	38.5
SOMEWHAT MORE	39.0	53.6
SOMEWHAT LESS	2.5	5.6
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.9	2.2

Percentage by Total

CONSIDERABLY MORE	36.8	13.9
SOMEWHAT MORE	24.9	19.3
SOMEWHAT LESS	1.6	2.0
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.6	0.8

Chi Squared=18.04 with DF=3, $P<.001$

Synopsis of Parents' Question: I have considerably more/somewhat more influence than friends; I have somewhat less/considerably less influence than do his friends.

Synopsis of Students' Question: Who has the most influence over you? Parents or best friends?

Table III-19

Parents' Perception of Relative Weight of Their Influence vs Students' Perceptions of Most Influential Agency Subdivided by Drug Use Category

User Group

PARENTS' PERCEPTION OF INFLUENCE:	Student Perception of Most Influential: PARENTS	BEST FRIENDS	TOTAL	%
CONSIDERABLY MORE	9	6	15	42.9
SOMEWHAT MORE	5	9	14	40.0
SOMEWHAT LESS	2	3	5	14.3
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0	1	1	2.9
TOTAL	16	19	35	100.0
TOTAL %	45.7	54.3		
Percentage by Rows				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	60.0	40.0		
SOMEWHAT MORE	35.7	64.3		
SOMEWHAT LESS	40.0	60.0		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.0	100.0		
Percentage by Columns				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	56.3	31.6		
SOMEWHAT MORE	31.3	47.4		
SOMEWHAT LESS	12.5	15.8		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.0	5.3		
Percentage by Total				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	25.7	17.1		
SOMEWHAT MORE	14.3	25.7		
SOMEWHAT LESS	5.7	8.6		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.0	2.9		

Chi Squared=2.706 with DF=3, P>.40

Table III-19
(continued)

Potential User Group

	Student Perception of Most Influential:			
PARENTS' PERCEPTION OF INFLUENCE:	PARENTS	BEST FRIEND	TOTAL	%
CONSIDERABLY MORE	18	12	30	37.5
SOMEWHAT MORE	17	26	43	53.8
SOMEWHAT LESS	1	5	6	7.5
CONSIDERABLY LESS	1	0	1	1.3
TOTAL	37	43	80	100.0
TOTAL %	46.3	43.8		
Percentage by Rows				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	60.0	40.0		
SOMEWHAT MORE	39.5	60.5		
SOMEWHAT LESS	16.7	83.3		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	100.0	0.0		
Percentage by Columns				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	48.6	27.9		
SOMEWHAT MORE	45.9	60.5		
SOMEWHAT LESS	2.7	11.6		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	2.7	0.0		
Percentage by Total				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	22.5	15.0		
SOMEWHAT MORE	21.3	32.5		
SOMEWHAT LESS	1.3	6.3		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	1.3	0.0		

Chi Squared=6.336 with DF=3, P >.09

Table III-19
(continued)

Non-User Group

	Student Perception of Most Influential:			
PARENTS' PERCEPTION OF INFLUENCE:	PARENTS	BEST FRIEND	TOTAL	%
CONSIDERABLY MORE	154	51	205	54.7
SOMEWHAT MORE	98	61	159	42.4
SOMEWHAT LESS	5	1	6	1.6
CONSIDERABLY LESS	2	3	5	1.3
TOTAL	259	116	375	100.0
TOTAL %	69.1	30.9		
Percentage by Rows				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	75.1	24.9		
SOMEWHAT MORE	61.6	38.4		
SOMEWHAT LESS	83.3	16.7		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	40.0	60.0		
Percentage by Columns				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	59.5	44.0		
SOMEWHAT MORE	37.8	52.6		
SOMEWHAT LESS	1.9	0.9		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.8	2.6		
Percentage by Total				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	41.1	13.6		
SOMEWHAT MORE	26.1	16.3		
SOMEWHAT LESS	1.3	0.3		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.5	0.8		

Chi Squared=16.177, with DF=3, $P<.02$

their children and the child's perception as to whom exerted the greatest behavioral control are given in table III-20. This relationship is highly statistically significant and suggests that for the most part students do not regard their relationship with best friends to be of a controlling nature. Our previous discussion of sources of influence suggests that the student-best friend relationship is directive as opposed to imperative.

A somewhat troublesome finding from this table is that parents clearly recognize that they have behavioral controls over their children; further, their children recognize this fact. While, for the present study group, the parent-child affective bonds were quite strong, it must be recognized that the investment of this amount of behavioral control in parents and its tacit recognition by their children provides an excellent starting point for the development of well documented social paradigm of "felt powerlessness".

When this data is split on the basis of drug use (table III-21) the percentage of students who felt that their parents had more influence over their behavior than their best friends was: user group - 77.1%; potential user group - 95%; non-user group - 95.5%.

The percentage of parents who felt they exercised more control over their children's behavior than did their children's friends was: user group - 82.9%; potential user group - 91.3%; non-user group - 97.1%.

Table III-20

Parents' Perception of Relative Weight of Influence Over Students vs Student Perception of Most Controlling

PARENTS' PERCEPTION OF INFLUENCE:	Student Perception of Most Controlling: PARENTS	BEST FRIEND	TOTAL	%
CONSIDERABLY MORE	242	11	253	50.7
SOMEWHAT MORE	208	13	221	44.3
SOMEWHAT LESS	13	5	18	3.6
CONSIDERABLY LESS	6	1	7	1.4
TOTAL	469	30	499	100.0
TOTAL %	94.0	6.0		
Percentage by Rows				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	95.7	4.3		
SOMEWHAT MORE	94.1	5.9		
SOMEWHAT LESS	72.2	27.8		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	85.7	14.3		
Percentage by Columns				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	51.6	36.7		
SOMEWHAT MORE	44.3	43.3		
SOMEWHAT LESS	2.8	16.7		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	1.3	3.3		
Percentage by Total				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	48.5	2.2		
SOMEWHAT MORE	41.7	2.6		
SOMEWHAT LESS	2.6	1.0		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	1.2	0.2		

Chi Squared=17.19 with DF=3, P<.001

Synopsis of Parent Question: I have considerably more/somewhat more influence than friends; I have somewhat less/considerably less influence than do his friends.

Synopsis of Student Question: Who has the most control over you? Parents or best friends?

Table III-21

Parents' Perception of Relative Weight of Influence Over Student
vs
Student Perception of Most Controlling
Subdivided by Drug Use Category

User Group

	Student Perception of Most Controlling:			
PARENTS' PERCEPTION OF INFLUENCE:	PARENTS	BEST FRIEND	TOTAL	%
CONSIDERABLY MORE	11	3	14	40.0
SOMEWHAT MORE	12	3	15	42.9
SOMEWHAT LESS	4	1	5	14.3
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0	1	1	2.9
TOTAL	27	8	35	
TOTAL %	77.1	22.9		
Percentage by Rows				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	78.6	21.4		
SOMEWHAT MORE	80.0	20.0		
SOMEWHAT LESS	80.0	20.0		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.0	100.0		
Percentage by Columns				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	40.7	37.5		
SOMEWHAT MORE	44.4	37.5		
SOMEWHAT LESS	14.8	12.5		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.0	12.5		
Percentage by Total				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	31.4	8.6		
SOMEWHAT MORE	34.3	8.6		
SOMEWHAT LESS	11.4	2.9		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	0.0	2.9		

Chi Squared=2.06 with DF=3, P>.30

Table III-21
(continued)

Potential User Group

PARENTS' PERCEPTION OF INFLUENCE:	Student Perception of Most Controlling: PARENTS	BEST FRIEND	TOTAL	%
CONSIDERABLY MORE	30	0	30	37.5
SOMEWHAT MORE	41	2	43	53.8
SOMEWHAT LESS	4	2	6	7.5
CONSIDERABLY LESS	1	0	1	1.3
TOTAL	76	4	80	100.0
TOTAL %	95.0	5.0		
Percentage by Rows				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	100.0	0.0		
SOMEWHAT MORE	95.3	4.7		
SOMEWHAT LESS	66.7	33.3		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	100.0	0.0		
Percentage by Columns				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	39.5	0.0		
SOMEWHAT MORE	53.9	50.0		
SOMEWHAT LESS	5.3	50.0		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	1.3	0.0		
Percentage by Total				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	37.5	0.0		
SOMEWHAT MORE	51.3	2.5		
SOMEWHAT LESS	5.0	2.5		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	1.3	0.0		

Chi Squared=11.78 with DF=3, $P<.01$

Table III-21
(continued)

Non-User Group

PARENTS' PERCEPTION OF INFLUENCE:	Student Perception of Most Controlling: PARENTS	BEST FRIEND	TOTAL	%
CONSIDERABLY MORE	199	8	207	54.9
SOMEWHAT MORE	151	8	159	42.2
SOMEWHAT LESS	5	1	6	1.6
CONSIDERABLY LESS	5	6	5	1.3
TOTAL	360	17	377	100.0
TOTAL %	95.5	4.5		
Percentage by Rows				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	96.1	3.9		
SOMEWHAT MORE	95.0	5.0		
SOMEWHAT LESS	83.3	16.7		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	100.0	0.0		
Percentage by Columns				
CONSIERABLY MORE	55.3	47.1		
SOMEWHAT MORE	41.9	47.1		
SOMEWHAT LESS	1.4	5.9		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	1.4	0.0		
Percentage by Total				
CONSIDERABLY MORE	52.8	2.1		
SOMEWHAT MORE	40.1	2.1		
SOMEWHAT LESS	1.3	0.3		
CONSIDERABLY LESS	1.3	0.0		

Chi Squared=2.60 with DF=3, P > .40

While these results can not be evaluated statistically (the one significant table in this series has very low cell frequencies), they indicate that parents held uniformly high perceptions of the control they exerted over their children. Although the user group showed that the actual amount of parental control was less than for other groups, the parents of drug users also held somewhat lesser expectancies as to their actual control. The perceptions of the potential user group parents and the non-user group parents reasonably reflected the actual amount of control accorded to parents by their children.

Opportunity For Input to Decisional Process

A measure of the opportunity for a child to make input to the family decision process can be gained from the information outlined in table III-22. This data indicates that there are significant differences ($P<.001$) between the parent-respondents' views of how often their children have an opportunity to make input on family decisions and the students' perceptions of this opportunity.

The table (III-23) produced by the three-way subdivision into drug use sub-groups all contain significant findings ($P<.016$), within the individual table. There are some[illegible]able differences among the three groups.

Concordance - The concordance of parent-student opinions was: user group - 50.1%; potential user group - 43.2%; non-user group - 62.8%.

Table III-22

Frequency of Input to the Decisional Process: Parental Solicitation of Student's Opinion vs Student Perception of Such Solicitation

Student Opinion Solicited

PARENT SOLICITS STUDENT OPINION:	NEVER	SOME-TIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	TOTAL	%
NEVER	2	4	5	0	11	2.4
SOMETIMES	13	114	52	15	194	41.8
OFTEN	17	73	62	31	183	39.4
ALWAYS	5	25	23	23	76	16.4
TOTAL	37	216	142	69	464	100.0
TOTAL %	8.0	46.6	30.6	14.9		

Percentage by Rows

NEVER	18.2	36.4	45.5	0.0
SOMETIMES	6.7	58.8	26.8	7.7
OFTEN	9.3	39.9	33.9	16.9
ALWAYS	6.6	32.9	30.3	30.3

Percentage by Columns

NEVER	5.4	1.9	3.5	0.0
SOMETIMES	35.1	52.9	36.6	21.7
OFTEN	45.9	33.8	43.7	44.9
ALWAYS	13.5	11.5	16.2	33.3

Percentage by Total

NEVER	0.4	0.9	1.1	0.0
SOMETIMES	2.8	24.6	11.2	3.2
OFTEN	3.7	15.7	13.4	6.7
ALWAYS	1.1	5.4	5.0	5.0

Chi Squared=36.94 with DF=9, $P < .001$

Synopsis of Parent Question: How often do you solicit the opinion of your child in making important family decisions?

Synopsis of Student Question: Which of the following best describes your part in family decisions? My parents never (sometimes, often, etc.) ask for my opinion.

Table III-23

Frequency of Input to the Decisional Process:
Parental Solicitation of Student's Opinion
vs
Student Perception of Such Solicitation
Subdivided by Drug Use Category

User Group

	Student Opinion Solicited					
PARENT SOLICITS STUDENT OPINION:	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	TOTAL	%
NEVER	0	0	0	0	0	0.0
SOMETIMES	4	7	1	0	12	37.5
OFTEN	4	3	7	1	15	46.9
ALWAYS	0	0	3	2	5	15.6
TOTAL	8	10	11	3	32	100.0
TOTAL %	25.0	31.3	34.4	9.4		
Percentage by Rows						
NEVER	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		
SOMETIMES	33.3	58.3	8.3	0.0		
OFTEN	26.7	20.0	46.7	6.7		
ALWAYS	0.0	0.0	60.0	40.0		
Percentage by Columns						
NEVER	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		
SOMETIMES	50.0	70.0	9.1	0.0		
OFTEN	50.0	30.0	53.6	33.3		
ALWAYS	0.0	0.0	27.3	66.7		
Percentage by Total						
NEVER	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0		
SOMETIMES	12.5	21.9	3.1	0.0		
OFTEN	12.5	9.4	21.9	3.1		
ALWAYS	0.0	0.0	9.4	6.3		

Chi Squared=16.8 with DF=6, P<.01

Table III-23
(continued)

Potential User Group

Student Opinion Solicited

PARENT SOLICITS STUDENT OPINION:	NEVER	SOME-TIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	TOTAL	%
NEVER	1	1	0	0	2	2.5
SOMETIMES	1	19	10	0	30	37.0
OFTEN	2	18	7	5	32	39.5
ALWAYS	1	5	3	8	17	21.0
TOTAL	5	43	20	13	81	100.0
TOTAL %	6.2	53.1	24.7	16.0		

Percentage by Rows

NEVER	50.0	50.0	0.0	0.0
SOMETIMES	3.3	63.3	33.3	0.0
OFTEN	6.3	56.3	21.9	15.6
ALWAYS	5.9	29.4	17.6	47.1

Percentage by Columns

NEVER	20.0	2.3	0.0	0.0
SOMETIMES	20.0	44.2	0.0	0.0
OFTEN	40.0	41.9	35.0	38.5
ALWAYS	20.0	11.6	15.0	61.5

Percentage by Total

NEVER	1.2	1.2	0.0	0.0
SOMETIMES	1.2	23.5	12.3	0.0
OFTEN	2.5	22.2	8.8	6.2
ALWAYS	1.2	6.2	3.7	9.9

Chi Squared=26.25 with DF=9; P<.01

Table III-23
(continued)

Non-User Group

Student Opinion Sclicited

PARENT SOLICITS STUDENT OPINION:	NEVER	SOME-TIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS	TOTAL	%
NEVER	1	3	5	0	9	2.6
SOMETIMES	8	87	40	14	149	43.1
OFTEN	11	52	47	24	134	38.7
ALWAYS	4	20	17	13	54	15.6
TOTAL	24	162	109	51	346	100.0
TOTAL %	6.9	46.8	31.5	14.7		
Percentage by Rows						
NEVER	11.1	33.3	55.6	0.0		
SOMETIMES	5.4	58.4	26.8	9.4		
OFTEN	8.2	38.8	35.1	17.9		
ALWAYS	7.4	37.0	31.5	24.1		
Percentage by Columns						
NEVER	4.2	1.9	4.6	0.0		
SOMETIMES	33.3	53.7	36.7	27.5		
OFTEN	45.8	32.1	43.1	47.1		
ALWAYS	16.7	12.3	15.6	25.5		
Percentage by Total						
NEVER	0.3	0.9	1.4	0.0		
SOMETIMES	2.3	25.1	11.6	4.0		
OFTEN	3.2	15.0	13.6	6.9		
ALWAYS	1.2	5.8	4.9	3.8		

Chi Squared=20.18 with DF=9, P<.02

Table III-23

(Summary)

Percentage of Parent Soliciting of Students' Opinion:

	User %		Potential User %		Non-User %	
Never	0.0	37.5	2.5	39.5	2.6	45.7
Sometimes	37.5		37.0		43.1	
Often	46.9	62.5	39.5	60.5	38.7	54.3
Always	15.6		21.0		15.6	

Student Perception of Frequency of Opinion Solicitation on Major Family Decisions:

	User %		Potential User %		Non-User %	
Never	25.0	56.3	6.2	59.3	6.9	53.7
Sometimes	31.3		53.1		46.8	
Often	34.3	43.7	24.7	40.7	31.5	46.2
Always	9.4		16.0		14.7	

These tables may be summarized by examining the percentage of parents that solicit input from their children, and the students' perception of such solicitation. (table III-23 (summary)

This summary presents some interesting insights as to the relative input each of the three sub-groups contributes to major family decisions. On this question, student perceptions do not adequately reflect the actual home situation. Parents of the user group more frequently solicit information from their children than any other group. However, the user student perceives just the opposite situation - the expressed view of the survey user group on the question of their opportunity to make input is that while they are often consulted, a full one-quarter of the group feels that they are never consulted as compared with the 6.2% and 2.6% 'never' category of the potential users and the non-users. As might be expected parent-student viewpoint concordance was lower (concordance=50.1%) in the user group than in the non-user group (concordance=62.8%).

The non-user group perceived that on average they were consulted less than the user group. However, the 'perceived as never consulted' group was far smaller (user=25%; non-user= 2.6%). In actual fact the non-user group was consulted slightly more often than not on major family decisions. Opinion concordance (concordance=62.8%) was highest in the non-user group.

The potential user group is in a most interesting situation. Its members are frequently consulted by their parents on major decisions; yet their perceived level of consultation is lower than the members of any other group. The concordance of parent-student opinions in this group had the lowest value (43.2%) of all groups.

The expectations as to the weight that the student's opinion would have on the home decision process are outlined in table III-24. From this table it is evident that there was a significant difference between the perceptions of students and their parents, although the overall concordance for parent-student perceptions was 63.5%. The largest discrepant group was made up of students who felt that their opinion did not matter, but whose parents indicated that their child's opinion did make a difference in family decisions.

When the information from this table is split into the three-way sub-tabulation (table III-25) as users, potential users, and non-users, all three tables reflect significant "within" findings ($P \leq .02$). While there are some quite startling differences between these sub-tables, there was no significant difference ($P > .30$) between potential users and non-users; however, there was a significant difference between the non-user categories grouped together and the user category ($P < .04$).

Concordance: The concordance of parent-student opinions was: user group - 81.5%; potential user group - 65.8%; non-user group - 61.5%.

Parent acceptance of student's opinion: User group - 29.6%; potential user group - 21.5%; non-user group - 38.2%.

Table III-24

Importance of the Child's Opinion in Major Family Decisions:
Child's Perception of Decision Weight vs
Parents' Actual Assessment of Weight of Opinion

	Student Responses:			
PARENTS' RESPONSES	OPINION DOES NOT MAKE A DIFFERENCE	OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	TOTAL	%
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	57	45	102	23.3
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	115	221	336	76.7
TOTAL	172	266	438	100.0
TOTAL %	39.3	60.7		
Percentage by Rows				
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	55.9	44.1		
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	34.2	65.8		
Percentage by Columns				
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	33.1	16.9		
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	66.9	83.1		
Percentage by Total				
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	13.0	10.3		
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	26.3	50.5		

Chi Squared=15.34 with DF=1, P<.001

Synopsis of Parent Question: What he/she says usually does not/does make a difference in the decision.

Synopsis of Student Question: What I say usually does not/does make a difference in the decision.

Table III-25

Importance of the Child's Opinion in Major Family Decisions: Child's Perception of Decision Weight vs Parents' Actual Assessment of Weight of Opinion Subdivided by Drug Use Category

User Group

	Student Responses:			
PARENTS' RESPONSES	OPINION DOES NOT MAKE A DIFFERENCE	OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	TOTAL	%
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	8	0	8	29.6
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	5	14	19	70.4
TOTAL	13	14	27	100.0
TOTAL %	48.1	51.9		
Percentage by Rows				
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	100.0	0.0		
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	26.3	73.7		
Percentage by Columns				
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	61.5	0.0		
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	38.6	100.0		
Percentage by Total				
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	29.6	0.0		
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	18.5	51.9		

Chi Squared=9.47 with DF=1, $P < .002$

Table III-25
(continued)

Potential User Group

Student Responses:

PARENTS' RESPONSES:	OPINION DOES NOT MAKE A DIFFERENCE	OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE'	TOTAL	%
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	11	6	8	29.6
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	21	41	19	70.4
TOTAL	32	47	27	100.0
TOTAL %	40.5	59.5		
Percentage by Rows				
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	64.7	35.3		
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	33.9	66.1		
Percentage by Columns				
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	34.4	12.8		
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	65.6	87.2		
Percentage by Total				
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	13.9	29.6		
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	26.6	70.4		

Chi Squared=5.26 with DF=1, $P<0.03$

Table III-25
(continued)

Non-User Group

Student Responses:

PARENTS' RESPONSES:	OPINION DOES NOT MAKE A DIFFERENCE	OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	TOTAL	%
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	37	38	75	22.9
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	88	164	252	77.1
TOTAL	125	202	327	100.0
TOTAL %	38.2	61.8		
Percentage by Rows				
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	49.3	50.7		
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	34.9	65.1		
Percentage by Columns				
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	29.6	18.8		
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	70.4	81.2		
Percentage by Total				
CHILD'S OPINION DOES NOT MAKE DIFFERENCE	11.3	11.6		
CHILD'S OPINION DOES MAKE DIFFERENCE	26.9	50.2		

Chi Squared=5.084 with DF=1, P<0.03

Students' perception that parents accept their opinion: User group - 48.1%; potential user group - 40.5%; non-user group - 22.9%.

Translating these tables into expectancies, there is evidence to suggest that the user group could expect that their opinion did make a difference in major home decisions. The high concordance (81.5%) with their parents' stated views supports this. The typical non-user has less influence on major family decisions than the user and in reality his expectations are somewhat lower than his actual influence (concordance=61.5%).

The potential user surveyed in this study is in a very tenuous position. While parents of potential users attach the most weight to their child's opinion of any drug use sub-group, the potential user group's perceptions were lower in concordance than the drug use group (55.8%). Even though this group's opinions actually carried considerable weight in the home decision process, their expectations as to the influence of their opinions was the lowest and only 22.9% felt that their opinion had influence on major family decisions.

Communication in the Home

Of central importance to any scheme of formal decision making is the ability of group members to communicate with each other, especially about topics that require joint problem solving. Communication difficulties in the home were recognized by the Commission of Inquiry into the Non Medical Use of Drugs as being a key element in the high risk family setting relative to the non medical use of drugs. Communications are also a key characteristic of Cleland's (1974) description of formal planning structures.

In the present study, most parents (N=443, 83.4%) felt that they were willing tc communicate with their children about problems (table III-26); yet, a substantial number of parents (N=168, 36.8%) indicated that they found it difficult to communicate with their children about their children's problems (table III-27). The parents were not alone in the 'communications gap' as about the same percentage (N=191, 38.1%) of their children felt that they found it difficult to communicate with their parents about their problems (table III-28). However, the home situation possesses considerably less communication difficulties than the school - 63.2% (N=332) of those students surveyed indicated that they found it difficult to talk with their teachers about their problems (table III-29).

When the parents' perception of their willingness to talk with their children about problems is compared with the perception of their children as to the parents' willingness to talk about problems (table III-30), no significant differences are to be found. A willingness to communicate with each other is found in 86.9% of the students surveyed and 83.5% of the parents surveyed. Students tended to over estimate parents' willingness to communicate in 13.7% of the cases; similarily parents over estimated students' willingness to communicate in 10.7% of the cases surveyed. Subdivision of the data of table III-30 by drug use categories failed

Table III-26

Parents: Communication With Child About Problems

Talk With Child When He/She Has Problems

	AGREE	DISAGREE	TOTAL
N	443	88	531
%	83.4	16.6	100.0%

Table III-27

Parents: Communication Difficulty With Child

Difficult to Talk With Child About Problems

	AGREE	DISAGREE	TOTAL
N	168	360	528
%	36.8	68.2	100.0%

Table III-28

Students' Communication Difficulty With Parents

Difficult to Talk With Parents About Problems

	AGREE	DISAGREE	TOTAL
N	191	310	501
%	38.1	61.9	100.0%

Table III-29

Difficult to Talk With Teachers About Problems

	AGREE	DISAGREE	TOTAL
N	332	193	525
%	63.2	36.8	100.0%

Table III-30

Parents' Perception of Willingness to Talk About Child's Problems vs Child's Perception of Parents' Willingness to Talk

PARENTS TALK WITH CHILD ABOUT PROBLEMS	Parents Willing to Talk With Child					
	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DIS-AGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	TOTAL	%
STRONGLY AGREE	118	128	16	13	275	53.2
AGREE	56	75	22	4	157	30.4
DISAGREE	1	3	1	1	6	1.2
STRONGLY DISAGREE	28	39	9	2	79	15.3
TOTAL	204	245	48	20	517	100.0
TOTAL %	29.3	47.6	9.3	3.9		

Percentage by Rows

STRONGLY AGREE	42.9	46.5	5.8	4.7
AGREE	35.7	47.8	14.0	2.5
DISAGREE	16.7		16.7	16.7
STRONGLY DISAGREE	36.7	49.4	11.4	2.5

Percentage by Columns

STRONGLY AGREE	58.1	52.2	33.3	65.0
AGREE	27.6	30.1	45.8	20.0
DISAGREE	1.0	1.0	2.1	5.0
STRONGLY DISAGREE	13.3	16.7	18.8	10.0

Percentage by Total

STRONGLY AGREE	22.8	24.8	3.1	2.5
AGREE	10.8	14.5	4.3	0.8
DISAGREE	0.2	0.6	0.2	0.2
STRONGLY DISAGREE	5.4	7.5	1.7	0.4

Chi Squared=16.71, with DF=9, P>.05

Synopsis of Parent Question: I talk with my child when he/she has a problem.

Synopsis of Student Question: My parents are willing to talk with me when I have a problem (strongly agree-strongly disagree).

to alter these results, nor was there a discernable relationship between either of the over-estimation groups (parents-children) and drug use.

When we examine perceived communication difficulties (table III-31) we discover that 31.5% of the parents and 30% of the students surveyed indicated that they found it difficult to communicate with each other. There were no significant differences between communications difficulties as perceived by the students and as perceived by the parents. However, 18.7% of the students under estimated their parents' perceived communication difficulties; whereas, 25.2% of the parents under estimated the difficulties that their children experienced in discussing their troubles with them. No significant, or even directional relationships could be established between drug use and perceived communications difficulty.

However, when the question, "Who do you find most difficult to talk with - parents or best friends?" posed to the students, is cross-tabulated with drug use, a strong relationship is found (table III-32). The drug user categories all found their parents to be more difficult to talk to than their best friends. The potential user category, those students who have not used drugs but who indicated that they might try them also indicated that they found their parents more difficult to communicate with than their best friends. The non-users who indicated that they would not try drugs provided results in the opposite direction. Fifty-one and six-tenths per cent of this group indicated that they found their

Table III-31

Parents' Perception of Communication Difficulties vs Students' Perception of Communication Difficulties

	Students: Communication Difficulties?					
PARENTS: COMMUNICATION DIFFICULTIES?	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DIS-AGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE	TOTAL	%
STRONGLY AGREE	5	9	22	10	46	9.3
AGREE	18	31	35	25	109	22.2
DISAGREE	14	47	60	45	166	33.7
STRONGLY DISAGREE	24	39	62	46	171	34.8
TOTAL	61	126	179	126	492	100.0
TOTAL %	12.4	35.6	36.4	25.6		

Percentage by Rows

STRONGLY AGREE	10.9	19.6	47.8	21.7
AGREE	16.5	28.4	32.1	22.9
DISAGREE	8.4	28.3	36.1	27.1
STRONGLY DISAGREE	14.0	22.8	36.3	26.9

Percentage by Columns

STRONGLY AGREE	8.2	7.1	12.3	7.9
AGREE	29.5	24.6	19.6	19.8
DISAGREE	23.0	37.3	33.5	35.7
STRONGLY DISAGREE	39.3	31.0	34.6	36.5

Percentage by Total

STRONGLY AGREE	1.0	1.8	4.5	2.0
AGREE	3.7	6.3	7.1	5.1
DISAGREE	2.8	9.6	12.2	9.1
STRONGLY DISAGREE	4.9	7.9	12.6	9.3

Chi Squared=9.08 with DF=9, P>.40

Synopsis of Parent Question: I find it difficult to talk with my child about things that trouble him/her.

Synopsis of Student Question: I find it difficult to talk with my parents about things that trouble me.

Table III-32

Communication Difficulties: Parents vs Best Friends by Drug Use Category

STUDENT: DRUG USE CATEGORY	Student: Most Difficult to Talk With			
	PARENTS	BEST FRIEND	TOTAL	%
DRUG USER - CONTINUING	10	5	15	3.1
DRUG USER - MIGHT USE AGAIN	11	3	14	2.9
DRUG USER - WON'T USE AGAIN	3	1	4	.8
NON-USER - MIGHT TRY	54	26	80	16.4
NON-USER - WILL NOT TRY	181	193	374	76.8
TOTAL	259	228	487	100.0
TOTAL %	53.2	46.8		
Percentage by Rows				
DRUG USER - CONTINUING	66.7	33.3		
DRUG USER - MIGHT USE AGAIN	78.6	21.4		
DRUG USER - WON'T USE AGAIN	75.0	25.0		
NON-USER - MIGHT TRY	67.5	32.5		
NON-USER - WILL NOT TRY	48.4	51.6		
Percentage by Columns				
DRUG USER - CONTINUING	3.9	2.2		
DRUG USER - MIGHT USE AGAIN	4.2	1.3		
DRUG USER - WON'T USE AGAIN	1.2	0.4		
NON-USER - MIGHT TRY	20.8	11.4		
NON-USER - WILL NOT TRY	69.9			
Percentage by Total				
		1.0		
DRUG USER - CONTINUING	2.1	0.6		
DRUG USER - MIGHT USE AGAIN	2.3	0.2		
DRUG USER - WON'T USE AGAIN	0.6	5.3		
NON-USER - MIGHT TRY	11.1	39.6		
NON-USER - WILL NOT TRY	37.2			

Chi Squared=15.51, with DF=4, P<.01

best friends more difficult to talk with than their parents. While this finding should be interpreted with caution due to the samll number of drug users in the study, it does offer some support to the Commission of Inquiry into the Non Medical Use of Drugs' contention that communication difficulty in the home, especially where it is accompanied with a communications differential between peer group and parents, is associated with the non medical use of drugs.

CONCLUSIONS

The Commission of Inquiry into the Non Medical Use of Drugs focused on two key areas of the individual's life - the affective structure of the home and the decisional framework within which family decisions are made.

Affective Structure - Conclusions

In the present study examination of the affective structure of the home revealed little support for the contention that lack of perceived affection was a salient variable in determining high risk home environments. The findings of this portion of the study that are of some interest to educators are: First, the large number of parents who indicated that they do not like their children. In the present study 19% of the parents indicated these sort of feelings. Fortunately, the affective bond within the home appears, for the 11-14 year old age group surveyed, fairly resistive to negative effects arising from parental dislike. Only about 8% of the children surveyed held views contrary to the statement that they liked their parents very much. Nevertheless, the negative affective feelings present in many homes suggests that continued efforts must be made at all levels: home, school, and church; to foster the development of warm affective feelings within the family circle. Second, when the general liking of teachers by the students who participated in the study was examined, 52% of the students agreed that they liked their teachers very much. Thirty-eight percent held some negative feelings about their teachers and about 9% held strong negative feelings. However, the nature of the question which required students to choose a position in terms of whether or not they liked their teachers very much may have caused an appearance of a negative bias. Other adjectives perhaps more appropriate to the student-teacher relationship come to mind such as "respect", "enjoy the company of", "appreciate", etc. Use of such adjectives in future research might reduce the possibility of response bias.

Third, about two-thirds of the parents stated that they always acted as if they liked their children, while the remaining one-third indicated substantially less agreement with the statement. A slightly lower proprotion of students (30%) indicated that they perceived their parents as sometimes disliking them. Hence, it may be said that there is reasonable accord between parents' actions regarding displaying a liking of their children and the perception of the child itself that he or she is, in fact, liked.

The ramifications of the ability of students to accurately perceive parental affection ought not to be underestimated. The Dreikurs' technique obviously exploits this perceptive ability, and the basic proposition that, "Emotions follow intellect and behavior", results in desirable operational states that stress strategies relating feelings and actions and the value of positive experiences (see figure I-2). This emphasis on the use of the affective bond within the home as a stepping stone to the constructive use of emotions encourages the development of mutual respect and liking. Dreikurs' technique in this area serves to modify behavior of family council members towards a mature outlook on the affective structure of the home so that one member can express displeasure with another only from a position of understanding; never from a position that is based on withdrawal of love and affection.

While limitations in the construction of the instrument, the abbreviated age-span of students who participated in the experiment and limited opportunity for probing the affective structure of the home all posed problems with the generality of the study results, a very conservative statement regarding the affective structure of the home and drug use would be that on the basis of the present study, there appears to be no evidence supporting the contention that the affective structure of the home is a basis or a predictor of future drug use.

Decisional Processes - Conclusions

In terms of the decisional framework of the home, the present study found little support for the contention that homes in which the mother is dominant and the father lacking in leadership constitute a high-risk environment; instead, it was found that fully 13% of the drug users came from homes in which traditional, male parent dominant, patterns of family decision making existed.

The role of parent-child influence structures was studied and it was found that no clear pattern of influence emerged regarding the relative roles of parents and best friends on the students' behavior. A finding of interest was that parents over estimated their influence, that is, they perceived themselves as being far more influential over their child's behavior than they really were.

There was evidence suggesting a shift in major sources of decisional ideas from a position in which the parents are cast as the ultimate source of influence to a position in which both parents and best friends received equal weighting as sources of decisional information. In terms of actual behavior control, the experimental results indicate that parents held uniformly high perceptions of the control they exerted over their children and that while the findings were not statistically significant, the results for the user group were in the direction of a reduction in the amount of perceived parental control by the student. Further, in the user groups the actual amount of parental control was judged by the parents to be less than the amount for the other groups. Thus, parents of drug users also held somewhat lower expectancies as to the amount of their actual control.

While the greatly abbreviated age-span of the survey group prevented detailed examination of the role of the parents as major sources of influence compared with their role as controlling agents, it is interesting to note that in the present study, parents were still largely seen as figures with far greater behavioral control than influence. In the majority of students in the survey, the basic social orientation was still the home, with the parents as controlling influences as opposed to being leaders in a consensus type situation.

In the present study opportunity for input and participation in decision making was a variable of major significance. There were clear differences between categories of drug use. Parents of the user group more frequently felt that they sought the opinion of their children than any other group; however, a sizeable number of individuals in this group felt that they were never consulted on decisions. On the other hand parents of the potential user group indicated that this group was the most frequently consulted, but potential users held perceptions in the opposite direction. The potential user group felt that they were consulted far less often than any other group.

The user group felt that their opinion did make an impact on home decisions, while the typical non-user had far less influence on family decisions.

The general conclusions support the contentions of Cleland (1974) and other management science authors - if decisions in accord with organizational goals are to be made, then the persons affected by the decisions must be allowed to make timely input to the decisional process, and their input must carry weight. If these conditions can not be met then the goals of the organization will not be carried out, and personal goals (which may be counterproductive, or anti-organization, etc.) may be substituted.

In the present study, the status of communications in the home was found to be extremely variable. Parents were willing to talk out problems with their children, and the children surveyed indicated that they felt that their parents were willing to talk to them about their problems. Yet over a third of all parents and children indicated that they found it difficult to talk over problems with each other.

Two-thirds of the students surveyed indicated that they felt that they had difficulty in discussing their problems with their teachers; yet more than one-half of the students indicated that they liked their teachers very much. There appears to be a solid basis for the further development of meaningful communication between student and teacher, especially where the development of strategies for dealing with social parameters, social values and social principles are concerned. While large classes and the somewhat impersonal atmosphere of modern day schools would limit the application of techniques such as the family council to the school situation, the introduction to the classroom of formal techniques to strengthen the strategic awareness and the decision making abilities of the student is urged. Such techniques would draw upon the solid basis of student-teacher affiliation and would greatly foster student-teacher communication leading ultimately to a more dynamic responsiveness to social parameters on the part of all concerned with the process, and hopefully to the sort of strategic awareness identified by Cleland (1974), Linstone (1974) and others as being necessary for the future development of our society. Additionally, the further development of student-teacher communications might provide a counterbalance to the communiciation differential between students, peer groups, and parents which was found to be associated with drug use in the present study. As teachers are detached from many of the behavioral concomitants of the home situation their role as influential agents as opposed to controlling figures gives them an ideal position as "planning consultants".

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE ABOUT DRUGS

This survey is an attempt to find out the knowledge, attitude and practices of students with respect to drugs.

Your answer sheet will be anonymous and strictly confidential. Do not sign your name. There is no way your individual answer sheet can ever be identified. The page will be scored by machine and then destroyed.

INSTRUCTIONS:

A. You need 3 things
   (a) The Question Booklet
   (b) The Answer Sheet
   (c) A pencil and rubber

B. (a) The questions are numbered 1, 2, 3, 4, etc.

   (b) The answer choices to each question are lettered A, B, C, D, or E.

C. For every question make ONE and ONLY ONE answer choice. Choose the ONE right or the best or the closest answer for you.

D. These are the STEPS IN ANSWERING:

   1. Read the question CAREFULLY.

   2. Read all the answer choices. Some are tricky or require thinking.

   3. i) Match the question numbers in the QUESTION BOOKLET and ANSWER SHEET.

      ii) Match the LETTER beside your chosen answer with the SAME LETTER on the ANSWER SHEET.

1. What grade are you in

   A. Grade 5
   B. Grade 6
   C. Grade 7
   D. Grade 8
   E. Grade 9

2. Which group contains your age? Mark the letter of that group on your answer sheet. (For example, if your age is 13 years - mark 2 c.)

   A. 10 years or under
   B. 11 or 12 years old
   C. 13 or 14 years old
   D. 15 or 16 years old
   E. 17 or over

3. If you are a boy mark A.

   If you are a girl mark E.

4. Where was your FATHER born?

   A. North America (Canada, United States)
   B. British Isles (England, Ireland, Scotland)
   C. Europe (France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Austria, Scandinavia and others)
   D. Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Russia
   E. Elsewhere

5. Where was your MOTHER born?

   A. North America (Canada, United States)
   B. British Isles (England, Ireland, Scotland)
   C. Europe (France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Austria, Scandinavia and others)
   D. Poland, Czechoslovakia, Hungary, Russia
   E. Elsewhere

6. What LANGUAGE do your PARENTS speak MOST OF THE TIME?

   A. English only
   B. Italian, Portuguese, Spanish
   C. Jewish, Hebrew
   D. German, French, Scandinavian Languages
   E. None of these (see #7 below)

7. Parents' LANGUAGE continued: (You MUST answer this question also)

   A. Chinese or Japanese
   B. Polish, Czechoslovakian, Hungarian, Romanian
   Ukrainian, Russian, Greek
   C. None of these

8. What is your FAMILY RELIGION? (Religion practised in your home)

   A. Catholic
   B. Protestant (Anglican, Presbyterian, United, Baptist, etc.)
   C. Jewish
   D. No Religion; or I don't know
   E. Other

9. Are you:

   A. Living with both parents
   B. Not living with one parent
   C. Living with relatives
   D. Living with friends (not relatives)
   E. None of these

10. When does your FATHER (Male Guardian) work?

    A. Father works all day (day-time)
    B. Father work shifts or evenings
    C. Father works part-time
    D. None of these; other
    E. My father is not working now

11. When does your MOTHER work?

    A. My Mother works all day (day-time)
    B. My Mother works shifts or evenings
    C. Mother works part-time
    D. None of these; other
    D. My Mother is not working now

12. What kind of work does your FATHER (or head of household) do?

    NOTE: 1. If your FATHER does not work - or if you have no FATHER - make no marks on answer sheet for this question.

    A. Professional and Managerial (Doctor, Teacher, Manager, Architect, Engineer)
    B. Proprietor (store or small business owner)
    C. Clerical or Sales (Bookkeeper, secretary, office work, salesman)
    D. Skilled or Technical (Mechanic, Electrician, Baker, Machine operator)
    E. Semiskilled (Construction, driving shipping, general labour)

13. What is your usual overall average for ALL subjects this year?

    A. under 40 %
    B. 40 - 50 %
    C. 50 - 65 %
    D. 65 - 75 %
    E. 75 or over

14. Do you have any OLDER brothers?

    A. I am the only child
    B. I am the oldest child
    C. I have 1 older brother
    D. I have 2 older brothers
    E. I have more than 2 older brothers

15. Do you have any OLDER sisters?

    A. I am the only child
    B. I am the oldest child
    C. I have 1 older sister
    D. I have 2 older sisters
    E. I have more than 2 older sisters

16. Do you have any YOUNGER brothers?

    A. I am the only child
    B. I am the youngest child
    C. I have 1 younger brother
    D. I have 2 younger brothers
    E. I have more than 2 younger brothers

17. Do you have any YOUNGER sisters?

    A. I am the only child
    B. I am the youngest child
    C. I have 1 younger sister
    D. I have 2 younger sisters
    E. I have more than 2 younger sisters

18. How much money do you have to spend each WEEK (from job, allowance, etc.)

    A. 50¢ or less
    B. 51¢ to $2
    C. $2.01 to $5
    D. $5.01 to $10
    E. over $10 a week

19. Have any of your BROTHERS or SISTERS taken Marijuana or sniffed glue?

    A. They've used marijuana only
    B. They've used glue only
    C. They've used both marijuana and glue
    D. They've never used marijuana or glue
    E. I don't know - or - I have no brothers or sisters

20. What does your Father (Male Guardian) use?

    A. tobacco only
    B. alcohol only
    C. tobacco and alochol
    D. neither tobacco nor alcohol
    E. I don't know - or I have no father

21. What does your Mother use?

    A. tobacco only
    B. alcohol only
    C. tobacco and alcohol
    D. neither tobacco nor alcohol
    E. I don't know - or - I have no mother

22. Check the category that applies to yourself.

    A. I have used drugs - I am still using them
    B. I have used drugs - I might use them again
    C. I have used drugs - I am not using them again
    D. I have not used drugs - I might like to try them
    E. I have not used drugs - I am not going to use them

23. How many persons do you know who would give you or sell you MARIJUANA?

    A. No one
    B. One person
    C. Two people
    D. Three people
    E. Four people or more

24. In the past six months (since August) I have used TOBACCO:

    A. Not at all
    B. 1 to 5 cigarettes per week
    C. 6 to 10 cigarettes per week
    D. 11 to 20 cigarettes per week
    E. 20 cigarettes or over per week or regular user

25. In the past six months (since August) I have used ALCOHOL:

    A. Not at all
    B. Less than once per month
    C. About twice per month
    D. About three times per month
    E. About four or more times per month

26. In the past six months (since August) I have used MARIJUANA:

    A. Not at all
    B. One or two times
    C. Three or four times
    D. Five or six times
    E. Seven or more times

27. In the past six months (since August) I have sniffed GLUE:

    A. Not at all
    B. One or two times
    C. Three or four times
    D. Five or six times
    E. Seven or more times

28. In the past six months I have used BARBITURATES: (seconal, amytal, phenobarb)

    A. Not at all
    B. One or two times
    C. Three or four times
    D. Five or six times
    E. Seven or more times

29. In the past six months I have used OPIATES: (heroin, morphine, opium)

A. Not at all
B. One or two times
C. Three or four times
D. Five or six times
E. Seven or more times

30. In the past six months (since August) I have used STIMULANTS: (pep pills)

A. Not at all
B. One or two times
C. Three or four times
D. Five or six times
E. Seven or more times

31. In the past six months (since August) I have used TRANQUILIZERS: (sleeping pills)

A. Not at all
B. One or two times
C. Three or four times
D. Five or six times
E. Seven or more times

32. In the past six months (since August) I have used LSD:

A. Not at all
B. One or two times
C. Three or four times
D. Five or six times
E. Seven or more times

33. In the past six months (since August) I have used OTHER HALLUCINOGENS: (STP, LBJ or others)

A. Not at all
B. One or two times
C. Three or four times
D. Five or six times
E. Seven or more times

IF YOU HAVE NOT USED TOBACCO IN THE PAST SIX MONTHS, SKIP TO QUESTION #39.

IF YOU HAVE NOT USED EITHER:

TOBACCO
MARIJUANA
GLUE
or ALCOHOL

IN THE PAST SIX MONTHS, THEN SKIP TO QUESTION #50.

34. When did you have your first cigarette?

A. This year
B. Last year
C. Two or three years ago
D. Four or five years ago
E. Over five years ago

35. When would you most likely smoke cigarettes?

A. usually when I'm alone
B. when I'm with my close friends
C. before, during or after a party
D. anywhere away from home
E. anytime outside of school - does not matter

36. If you used CIGARETTES but have stopped, which of the following comes closest to your reason for stopping?

A. thought it might be harmful or addictive
B. my parents or others forced me to stop
C. my friends wanted me to stop
D. I'm not interested in smoking anymore
E. I have not stopped

37. How much do your parents know about your SMOKING (pipes, cigarettes, etc.)?

A. they don't know I smoke
B. they don't know I smoke as much as I do
C. they know I smoke and want me to stop
D. they know I smoke and they OK it
E. I have no Parents

38. Which of these methods have you used MOST to get CIGARETTES?

A. said you were older or used an older person's I.D. card
B. had an older person buy them for you
C. friends gave them or sold them to you
D. parents gave them to you
E. bought them yourself

IF YOU HAVE NOT USED ALCOHOL IN THE PAST SIX MONTHS, SKIP TO QUESTION #44.

39. When did you have your first DRINK of alcohol (beer, wine or liquor)?

    A. This year
    B. Last year
    C. Two or three years ago
    D. Four or five years ago
    E. Over five years ago

40. When would you most likely drink?

    A. usually when I'm alone
    B. when I'm with my close friends
    C. before, during or after a party
    D. anywhere away from home
    E. anytime outside of school - does not matter

41. If you have used ALCOHOL but have stopped, which of the following comes closest to your reason for stopping?

    A. thought it might be harmful or addictive
    B. my parents or others forced me to stop
    C. my friends wanted me to stop
    D. I'm no longer interested in drinking
    E. I have not stopped

42. How much do your parents know about your drinking?

    A. they don't know I drink
    B. they don't know I drink as much as I do
    C. they know I drink and want me to stop
    D. they know I drink and OK it
    E. I do not live with my parents

43. Which of these methods have you used MOST to get ALCOHOL?

    A. said you were older or used an older person's I.D. card to buy it
    B. had an older person buy it for you
    C. friends gave it or sold it to you
    D. parents gave it to you
    E. bought it yourself

IF YOU HAVE NOT USED MARIJUANA IN THE PAST SIX MONTHS, SKIP TO QUESTION #47.

44. When did you first use MARIJUANA?

A. This year
B. Last year
C. Two or three years ago
D. Four or five years ago
E. Over five years ago

45. If you have used MARIJUANA but have stopped, which one of the following comes closest to your reason for stopping?

A. thought it might be harmful or addictive
B. my parents or others forced me to stop
C. my friends wanted me to stop
D. I'm not interested in using marijuana anymore
E. I have not stopped using marijuana

46. How much do your parents know about your using MARIJUANA?

A. they don't know I use marijuana
B. they don't know I use as much marijuana as I do
C. they know I use marijuana and want me to stop
D. they know I use marijuana and OK it
E. I have no parents

IF YOU HAVE NOT SNIFFED GLUE IN THE PAST SIX MONTHS, SKIP TO QUESTION #50.

47. When did you first sniff GLUE?

A. This year
B. Last year
C. Two or three years ago
D. Four or five years ago
E. Over five yeras ago or before

48. If you have sniffed GLUE but have stopped which one of the following comes closest to your reason for stopping?

A. thought it might be harmful or addictive
B. my parents or others forced me to stop
C. my friends wanted me to stop
D. I'm not interested in using glue anymore
E. I have not stopped using glue

49. How much do your parents know about your using GLUE?

A. they don't know I use glue
B. they don't know I use as much glue as I do
C. they know I use glue and want me to stop
D. they know I use glue and OK it
E. I have no parents

50. Which one of the following is most like your reason for NOT using drugs?

A. drugs are dangerous to my health
B. drugs are illegal
C. my parents don't approve of my using drugs
D. I have other things I enjoy doing
E. I use drugs

THE NEXT FOUR QUESTIONS DEAL WITH REASONS FOR TAKING DRUGS:

IF YOU USE DRUGS: choose the reason that comes closest to your real reason for taking drugs

IF YOU DO NOT USE DRUGS: choose the reason why you think STUDENTS use drugs

51. Reasons for using drugs (choose ONE only)

A. to keep awake and alert while working or studying
B. to relieve or escape home tension or school worries
C. to be more at ease, less self conscious in a group
D. mostly for headaches
E. to feel with new body sensations or images

52. Reasons for using drugs (choose ONE only)

A. for fun, kicks or thrills
B. because friends are taking drugs
C. have a doctor's prescription (for allergies, nerves, etc.)
D. because your culture uses drugs (with meals, at celebrations)
E. for curiousity - want to find out what it's like

53. Reasons for using drugs (choose ONE only)
A. feel old enough to use drugs responsibly
B. to feel at home with the group
C. drugs make you feel good - it's a nice sensation
D. friends respect drug users as leaders or as being grown-up
E. drugs help you sleep more easily - calm you down

54. Reasons for using drugs (choose ONE only)

A. with drugs it's easier to express your feelings
B. drugs are a good way to change your mood
C. drugs are one way to rebel against adult authority
D. because of boredom - there is not much else to do
E. to be more creative - writing, music, thinking

THE REMAINING ARE SINGLE QUESTIONS i.e. MAKE ONE ANSWER FOR EACH QUESTION

55. Which substance in this list causes the GREATEST HARM when used a lot?

    A. Cigarettes
    B. Marijuana
    C. Glue
    D. Alcohol
    E. Other - or - any of these

56. What does the term GRASS refer to?

    A. Money
    B. Marijuana
    C. Indian Tobacco
    D. LSD
    E. Other - or - none of these

57. How much money does a "dime bag" of marijuana cost?

    A. $1.00
    B. $.10
    C. $100.00
    D. $10.00
    E. Other - or - none of these

58. People who are "hooked" on (addicted to) heroin are MOSTLY

    A. sick and need treatment
    B. average people, anyone could get hooked
    C. bad or morally weak people
    D. other

59. Drug use among students IN THIS SCHOOL is

    A. lower than last year
    B. the same as last year
    C. higher than last year
    D. I don't know

60. Which one of these would most influence your decision to take or not to take drugs.

    A. the information you get at school
    B. what your parents tell you about drugs
    C. television, books or newspaper information
    D. your family Doctor
    E. what your friends tell you about drugs

61. If you were a parent and your child told you that he had decided to take marijuana, what would you do?

A. tell him that using marijuana might hurt him
B. nothing - it would be his choice
C. try to stop him by punishing him
D. tell him it was OK, use it carefully

62. If a Father in a family is a very heavy drinker the son is most likely to be:

A. a heavy drinker like his father
B. an average user of alcohol
C. against the use of alcohol
D. other
E. don't know - or - can't say

63. The best cure for a drug addict or alcoholic would be

A. joining a group like Alcoholics Anonymous
B. going to the hospital for treatment
C. to stop using drugs without anyone else's help
D. to cut down slowly on the amount of drug
E. to do something else to take his mind off drugs

64. The legal drinking age in Alberta is

A. 16
B. 23
C. 18
D. 21
E. I don't know

65. I think the legal drinking age should

A. be lowered
B. remain the same
C. be raised
D. be gotten rid of
E. don't know

66. Have you ever been in a group where OTHER PEOPLE used drugs (marijuana, glue, LSD, etc.) and you did not use them.

   A. I have never been at a party where there were drugs present
   B. I have been at drug parties but I do not use drugs myself
   C. at parties with drugs, I use drugs

67. How often have you been at a party where drugs (marijuana, glue, LSD, etc.) were used

   A. never
   B. 1 or 2 times
   C. 3 to 5 times
   D. 6 to 10 times
   E. over 10 times

68. From which of the following sources have you learned MOST of what you know about drugs?

   A. from my family
   B. from the kids I hang around with
   C. from my church or school
   D. from the T.V., radio, newspaper
   E. from my own experiences with drugs

69. What do you most often do in the evenings AFTER SCHOOL?

   A. stay at home, read, watch T.V., etc.
   B. go to a friend's house, go out with a friend
   C. activities (sports, music, clubs)
   D. go out or hang around with a group of kids
   E. none of these

70. What do you do most often on WEEKEND EVENINGS?

   A. stay at home, read, watch T.V., etc.
   B. go to a friend's house, go out with a friend
   C. activities (sports, music, clubs)
   D. go out or hang around with a group of kids (parties, dances)
   E. none of these

71. In school how many activities (if any) do you take part in this year? (i.e. sports, band)

   A. no activity
   B. one activity
   C. two activities
   D. three activities
   E. four or more activities

72. I feel that a person in court for the first time for having marijuana should

A. be dismissed - no charge
B. have a suspended sentence
C. receive a fine only
D. receive a jail term of less than 30 days
E. receive a jail term of more than 30 days

73. When could drug education best be started in schools?

A. grade 7 or below
B. grade 8 or 9
C. grade 10 or 11
D. grade 12 or 13
E. drug education does not belong in schools

74. If you FEEL that taking MARIJUANA is SAFE (even if you have not used it yourself) what helped you MOST in making up your mind?

A. my family
B. my friends
C. my personal experience
D. the news media - T.V., radio, newspaper
E. I think marijuana is unsafe

75. If you FEEL that taking MARIJUANA is HARMFUL (even if you have not used it yourself) what helped you most in making up your mind?

A. my family
B. my friends
C. my personal experience
D. the news media, T.V., radio, newspaper
E. I think that marijuana is safe

YOUNG PEOPLE USUALLY HAVE SOME SPECIFIC IDEAS ABOUT THE SCHOOL, HOME AND FRIENDS. SOME OF THESE IDEAS ARE LISTED BELOW. AS YOU READ EACH STATEMENT, CONSIDER WHETHER YOU STRONGLY AGREE (A), AGREE SOMEWHAT ~~(B)~~, DISAGREE SOMEWHAT (C), OR STRONGLY DISAGREE (D) THAT THE STATEMENT IS TRUE.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
76. School is dull and boring	A	B	C	D
77. School is a waste of time for the type of work I will be doing	A	B	C	D

		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
78.	My teachers judge a student by who he runs around with	A	B	C	D
79.	The teachers are fair to everybody. Everybody has an equal opportunity to get good grades. The teachers do not have favorites.	A	B	C	D
80.	I like school very much	A	B	C	D
81.	My teachers understand my problems	A	B	C	D
82.	My teachers are willing to talk with me when I have a question.	A	B	C	D
83.	My teachers are interested in the things I like to do	A	B	C	D
84.	My teachers really help me understand the lessons	A	B	C	D
85.	I find it difficult to talk with my teachers about things that trouble me	A	B	C	D
86.	My teachers always act as if they like me	A	B	C	D
87.	I like my teachers very much	A	B	C	D
88.	My parents understand my problems	A	B	C	D
89.	My parents are willing to talk with me when I have a problem	A	B	C	D
90.	My parents are interested in the things I like to do	A	B	C	D
91.	My parents really help me understand my lessons	A	B	C	D
92.	I find it difficult to talk with my parents about things that trouble me	A	B	C	D
93.	My parents always act as if the like me	A	B	C	D

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
94. I like my parents very much	A	B	C	D
95. My best friends like school	A	B	C	D
96. My best friends do the best they can in their school work	A	B	C	D

97. How often do your teachers urge you to get more education after high school?

A. Never
B. Sometimes
C. Often
D. Constantly

98. How often do your best friends urge you to improve your grades?

A. Never
B. Sometimes
C. Often
D. Constantly

99. How often do your best friends urge you to get more education after high school?

A. Never
B. Sometimes
C. Often
D. Constantly

THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS ARE ABOUT YOUR RELATIONSHIPS WITH YOUR PARENTS AND BEST FRIENDS. AS YOU READ EACH DESCRIPTION, CONSIDER WHETHER YOUR PARENTS (A) OR BEST FRIENDS (B) FITS THE DESCRIPTION BEST.

WHO (Parents or Best Friends)	PARENTS	BEST FRIENDS
100. best understands your problems	A	B
101. is most willing to talk with you when you have a problem	A	B
102. is most interested in the things you like to do	A	B

		PARENTS	BEST FRIENDS
103.	best knows your school subjects	A	B
104.	best helps you understand the school lessons	A	B
105.	is most difficult to talk with about things that trouble you	A	B
106.	most often acts as if they like you	A	B
107.	do you like the best	A	B
108.	tries the hardest to help you when you have a problem	A	B
109.	is it the easiest to talk to	A	B
110.	would you most like to get "closer to"	A	B
111.	has the most influence on you	A	B
112.	has the most control over you	A	B

113. When you are trying to make up your mind about something important, whose ideas do you pay the MOST attention to?

A. Best friends
B. Parents
C. Both about the same

114. Which one of the following three things would make you the most unhappy?

A. Best friends did not like what I did
B. Parents did not like what I did
C. Favorite teacher did not like what I did

115. Which one of the following things would be the hardest for you to take?

A. Best friends' disapproval
B. Parents' disapproval
C. Teachers' disapproval

MANY YOUNG PEOPLE LIKE YOURSELF FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH THEIR PARENTS ABOUT SOME THINGS AND NOT DIFFICULT AT ALL TO TALK TO THEIR PARENTS ABOUT OTHER THINGS. As you read each question, consider whether you never (A), sometimes (B), often (C), or always (D) have difficulty in talking about the problem with your father, mother, and best friends. Note: If you haven't talked about the problem with your parents or best friends, do you feel you might have difficulty if you did? How often?

HOW OFTEN DO YOU FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH YOUR PARENTS CONCERNING;

	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	[illegible]WAYS
116. Appropriate entertainment	A	B	C	D
117. How to dress	A	B	C	D
118. Drinking and/or smoking	A	B	C	D
119. Job	A	B	C	D
120. Religion	A	B	C	D
121. Money	A	B	C	D
122. Fears	A	B	C	D
123. Late hours	A	B	C	D
124. Dating	A	B	C	D
125. Education	A	B	C	D

HOW OFTEN DO YOU FIND IT DIFFICULT TO TALK WITH YOUR BEST FRIENDS CONCERNING:

	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
126. Appropriate entertainment	A	B	C	D
127. How to dress	A	B	C	D
128. Drinking and/or smoking	A	B	C	D
129. Job	A	B	C	D
130. Religion	A	B	C	D
131. Money	A	B	C	D
132. Fears	A	B	C	D

	NEVER	SOMETIMES	OFTEN	ALWAYS
133. Late hours	A	B	C	D
134. Dating	A	B	C	D
135. Education	A	B	C	D

FOR EACH OF THE FOLLOWING DESCRIPTIONS, CHOOSE THE LETTER OF THE PERSON THAT BEST FITS THE DESCRIPTION. (A) Parents, (B) Best Friend, and (C) Teacher.

	PARENTS	FRIEND	TEACHER
136. the person whose company I most enjoy	A	B	C
137. the person whom I would most like to be like	A	B	C
138. the person whose ideas about right and wrong are most like mine	A	B	C
140. the person whose ideas about the importance of school are most like mine	A	[✓ B]	C

ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS ON THE PART 2 SECTION OF THE ANSWER SHEET

1. Which one of the following best describes how important decisions are made in your family?

   A. Usually, my father makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my mother

   B. Usually, my father discusses the matter with my mother and then he makes the decision more or less by himself

   C. Usually, both of my parents talk over the matter with each other and then they both make the decision more or less together

   D. Usually, my mother discusses the matter with my father and then she makes the decision more or less by herself

   E. Usually, my mother makes the decision without first discussing the matter with my father

2. Which one of the following best describes your part in important family decisions?

   A. my parents never ask for my opinion
   B. my parents sometimes ask for my opinion
   C. my parents often ask for my opinion
   D. my parents almost always ask for my opinion

3. Which one of the following best describes how important your parents regard your opinion in important family decisions?

   A. what I say usually does not make a difference in the decision
   B. what I say usually does make a difference in the decision

4. How much time on school days do you usually spend talking with members of your family?

   A. none, or almost none
   B. about 1/2 hour a day
   C. about 1 hour a day
   D. about 2 hours a day
   E. about 3 hours a day or more

5. How much time on school days do you usually spend talking with your best friends? (Note: do not include time spent in the classroom.)

   A. none or almost none
   B. about 1/2 hour a day
   C. about 1 hour a day
   D. about 2 hours a day
   E. about 3 hours a day or more

6. Where do you spend most of your free time with your best friends?

   A. at school sponsored activities such as ballgames, parties, club meetings
   B. at non-school activities such as youth parties, church meetings
   C. at various places where young people like myself "hang around"
   D. at my place (home)
   E. at one of my friend's places (friends' home)

7. How much time do you usually spend each day doing homework outside of school?

   A. none, or almost none
   B. about 1/2 hour a day
   C. about 1 hour a day
   D. about 2 hours a day
   E. about 3 or more hours a day

8. If you could be remembered ~~here at~~ school for one of the four things below, which one would you most want it to be?

   A. outstanding student
   B. athletic star
   C. most popular
   D. leader in school activities

9. Do you date?

   A. No
   B. Yes, more than one a week
   C. Yes, once a week
   D. Yes, more than once a month, but less than once a week
   E. Yes, once a month or less

10. How many persons have you dated during the past month?

   A. none
   B. one person
   C. two to three persons
   D. four to five persons
   E. six or more persons

11. Some young people believe that their parents are old fashioned or out of "touch" with youth. Do you feel this way about your parents?

   A. No, never
   B. Yes, sometimes
   C. Yes, often
   D. Yes, always

12. How often do your teachers urge you to improve your grades?

   A. never
   B. sometimes
   C. often
   D. constantly

13. How often do your paents urge you to improve your grades?

A. never
B. sometimes
C. often
D. constantly

APPENDIX B

PARENT QUESTIONNAIRE

IF YOU RECEIVE MORE THAN ONE COPY OF THIS QUESTIONNAIRE, YOU NEED ONLY COMPLETE ONE COPY, BUT PLEASE HAVE EACH CHILD RETURN THE COPY HE BROUGHT HOME.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is to learn more about the life of young people and their parents. We are particularly interested in how fathers and mothers feel about the life of teenagers. Your teenage children completed a questionnaire similar to this one while at school today. One of your children received a "take-home-packet" along with his questionnaire which contained a questionnaire for his parents. When you have completed the questionnaire, please place them in the envelope provided for your child to take them back to school. It is our hope that you will enjoy answering the questions. In doing so, of course, you will be of great help to us.

THIS IS NOT A TEST. There are no right or wrong answers. Please answer each question to the best of your ability. Please answer each question frankly and honestly. Neither your children, their teachers, nor the school will ever see your questionnaire or your responses. Your answers will be strictly confidential. Our interest is in how parents, in general, answer the questions rather than in how any particular parent answers them. Please do not sign your name.

Instructions

A. PLEASE COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE IN ONE SITTING! It will take you approximately 20-30 minutes.

Instructions for Using Answer Sheet

You need 3 things
(a) The Question Booklet
(b) The Answer Sheet
(c) A pencil and rubber

a) The questions are numbered 1, 2, 3, 4, etc.

b) The answer choices to each question are lettered A, B, C, D, or E

For every question make ONE and ONLY ONE answer choice. Choose the ONE right or the best or thec losest answer for you.

THESE ARE THE STEPS IN ANSWERING:

1. Read the question CAREFULLY.

2. Read all the answer choices.

3. i) Match the question numbers in the QUESTION BOOKLET AND ANSWER SHEET.

   ii) Match the LETTER beside your chosen answer with the SAME LETTER on the ANSWER SHEET.

1. Sex

   A. Male
   E. Female

2. Age

   A. 20-29
   B. 30-39
   C. 40-49
   D. 50-59
   E. 60 or over

3. What is your educational background?

   A. up to and including grade 6
   B. grade 7 to grade 9
   C. some high school
   D. completed high school
   E. after high school (university, technical school, professional training)

4. All, or most, of my childhood was spent:

   A. on a farm, or in the country
   B. in a village
   C. in a small town
   D. in a city
   E. in a metropolitan city, 100,000 pop. or more

5. What is your present marital situation?

   A. I am living with my spouse
   B. My spouse is deceased
   C. My spouse and I are separated
   D. My spouse and I are divorced

6. How many children do you have?

   A. One
   B. Two
   C. Three
   D. Four
   E. Five or more

7. How many children are still at home?

   A. One
   B. Two
   C. Three
   D. Four
   E. Five or more

8. How many times have you moved since your first child was born? Note: do not include those times when you moved from one part of town to another part of the same town.

   A. No times
   B. One to three times
   C. Four to six times
   D. Seven or ten times
   E. Ten or more times

9. Do you live in a house or an apartment?

   A. House, 1-2 bedroom
   B. House, 3 bedrooms or more
   C. Apartment, 1 bedroom
   D. Apartment, 2 bedrooms
   E. Apartment, 3 bedrooms or more

10. Do you own or rent your house?

   A. Own my house
   B. Rent my house
   C. Rent an apartment

11. What type of work does your husband do? (If father is answering, what type of work do you do?)

   A. Professional and Managerial (Doctor, Teacher, Manager, Architect, Engineer)
   B. Proprietor (store or small business owner)
   C. Clerical or Sales (Bookkeeper, secretary, office work, salesman)
   D. Skilled or Technical (Mechanic, Electrician, Baker, Machine Operator)
   E. Semiskilled (Construction, driving, shipping, general labour)

12. Do you have encyclopedias or other similar books in your home?

   A. Yes
   B. No

13. How often does your child use these materials?

   A. Never
   B. About once a month
   C. Two or three times a month
   D. About once a week
   E. Two or three times a week

14. How often do you (or did you) read to your younger children?

    A. Never
    B. About once a month
    C. Two or three times a month
    D. About once a week
    E. Two or three times a week

15. Who is employed in your household?

    A. Husband (male head of house) only
    B. Wife (female head of house) only
    C. Both husband and wife

16. How many hours a week does the wife work?

    A. 40 hours a week or more
    B. 30-39 hours a week
    C. 20-29 hours a week
    D. 10-19 hours a week
    E. Less than 10 hours a week

PARENTS USUALLY HAVE SOME SPECIFIC IDEAS ABOUT SCHOOL, HOME AND COMMUNITY. SOME OF THESE IDEAS ARE LISTED BELOW. AS YOU READ EACH STATEMENT, CONSIDER WHETHER YOU STRONGLY AGREE (A), AGREE SOMEWHAT (B), DISAGREE SOMEWHAT (C), OR STRONGLY DISAGREE (D) THAT THE STATEMENT IS TRUE. PLEASE CHOOSE YOUR ANSWER.

	STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONLY DISAGREE
17. The schools fail to gain the interest of my children	A	B	C	D
18. School is a waste of time for the type of work my children will be doing	A	B	C	D
19. The teachers judge a student by who he runs around with	A	B	C	D
20. The teachers are fair to everybody. Everyone has an equal opportunity to get good grades	A	B	C	D

		STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
21.	I think the schools are doing a good job	A	B	C	D
22.	I understand my child's problems	A	B	C	D
23.	I talk with my child when (he, she) has a problem	A	B	C	D
24.	I am interested in the things my child likes to do	A	B	C	D
25.	I know the subjects my child studies	A	B	C	D
26.	I find it difficult to talk with my child about things that trouble (him, her)	A	B	C	D
27.	I always act as if I like my child	A	B	C	D
28.	I like my child very much	A	B	C	C

29. How often do you urge your child to improve (his, her) grades?

A. Never
B. Sometimes
C. Often
D. Constantly

30. How often do you urge your child to get more education after high school?

A. Never
B. Sometimes
C. Often
D. Constantly

31. Do you generally approve of the friends your child runs around with?

A. highly approve
B. approve
C. disapprove
D. highly disapprove

32. Some parents feel that they have lost "touch" with their teenage children. Do you agree or disagree that this is true of your relationship with your child?

    A. Strongly agree
    B. Agree
    C. Disagree
    D. Strongly disagree

33. Do you set aside time each day to do something (talk, play, go places) with your child?

    A. No, never
    B. Yes, sometimes
    C. Yes, often
    D. Yes, always

34. Approximately how much time each day do you actually spend with your child? Note: consider only time actually spent together, talking, playing together, or going places together.

    A. None, or almost none
    B. About 1/2 hour a day
    C. About 1 hour a day
    D. About 2 hours a day
    E. About 3 hours a day or more

35. When you go on a vacation of a week or more, does your child go with you?

    A. No, never
    B. Yes, sometimes
    C. Yes, often
    D. Yes, always

36. How often does your family take short overnight or two-three day trips such as visiting or camping?

    A. Never
    B. Several times a year
    C. About once a month
    D. Two or three times a month or more

37. How often does your child go with you?

A. Never
B. Sometimes
C. Often
D. Always

38. How many times each week is your child able to be present for the day's evening meal?

A. No times
B. One time
C. 2-3 times
D. 4-5 times
E. 6-7 times

39. Based on your observations of your child which one of the following statements is most true?

A. I have considerably more influence on (him,her) than do (his,her) friends.

B. I have somewhat more influence on (him,her) than do (his, her) friends.

C. My child's friends have somewhat more influence on (him, her) than I do

D. My child's friends have considerably more influence on (him,her) than I do.

40. Which one of the following best describes how you regard the opinion of your child in the making of important family decisions?

A. I never ask for (his,her) opinion
B. I sometimes ask for (his,her) opinion
C. I often ask for (his,her) opinion
D. I almost always ask for (his,her) opinion

41. Which one of the following best describes how important you regard the opinion of your child in the making of important family decisions?

A. What (he,she) says usually does not make a difference in the decision
B. What (he,she) says usually does make a difference in the decision

PEOPLE USUALLY HAVE MANY IDEAS ABOUT WHAT A STUDENT OUGHT TO DO IN SCHOOL. SOME OF THESE IDEAS ARE LISTED BELOW. AS YOU READ THEM, CONSIDER HOW IMPORTANT EACH IDEA IS TO YOU.

Please choose HIGH (A) - if you consider the idea highly important
choose MEDIUM (B) - if you consider the idea of medium importance
choose LOW (C) - if you consider the idea of little importance
choose NO (D) - if you consider the idea of no importance

A STUDENT OUGHT TO:	HIGH	MEDIUM	LOW	NO
42. Spend most of spare time reading and studying	A	B	C	D
43. Do very best in school work (grades, study)	A	B	C	D
44. Be a star in sports activities	A	B	C	D
45. Be a leader in school activities	A	B	C	D
46. Be popular with his (her) classmates	A	B	C	D
47. Have fun - study only enough to keep grades above passing	A	B	C	D

48. Suppose you have just heard from your child's teacher that his homework is not being completed. What would you do?

A. Turn off the T.V. (or record player) for a week as punishment for neglecting his school work.
B. I'd give him a good scolding and tell him he should do better
C. Talk it over with him and help him decide how to meet the problem
D. Tell him it will be his own fault if he doesn't pass

49. Which one of the following best describes how important decisions are made in your family?

- A. Usually, I make the decision without first discussing the matter with my spouse
- B. Usually, I discuss the matter with my spouse and then I make the decision more or less by myself
- C. Usually, both my spouse and I talk over the matter with each other and then we both make the decision more or less together
- D. Usually, my spouse discusses the matter with me and then he makes the decision more or less by himself
- E. Usually my spouse makes the decision without first discussing the matter with me

REMINDERS

PLEASE PUT THE QUESTIONNAIRE AND YOUR ANSWER SHEET IN THE ENVELOPE, SEAL IT AND HAVE YOUR CHILD RETURN IT TO HIS OR HER TEACHER.

DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE

APPENDIX C

Table C-1

Parent Questionnaire: Test-Retest Reliabilities

Item No: Reliability Coefficient $r_{A_1A_2}$

1	.997	26	.986
2	.993	27	.950
3	.996	28	.890
4	.984	29	.968
5	.998	30	.877
6	.998	31	.914
7	.940	32	.897
8	.813	33	.891
9	.827	34	.864
1	.964	35	.878
11	.833	36	.932
12	.764	37	.957
13	.872	38	.946
14	.760	39	.986
15	.750	40	.950
16	.806	41	.980
17	.841	42	.975
18	.842	43	.962
19	.765	44	.993
20	.893	45	.891
21	.753	46	.942
22	.897	47	.903
23	.819	48	.982
24	.865	49	.973
25	.818		

Table C-2

Student Questionnaire: Test-Retest Reliability

Item No:	Reliability Coefficient $r_{A_1A_2}$						
1	.993	40	.879	80	.893	120	.874
2	.830	41	.886	81	.887	121	.920
3	.979	42	.890	82	.851	122	.806
4	.926	43	.798	83	.825	123	.918
5	.940	44	.928	84	.883	124	.815
6	.888	45	.924	85	.804	125	.815
7	.962	46	.800	86	.846	126	.804
8	.897	47	.963	87	.858	127	.961
9	.988	48	.959	88	.929	128	.895
10	.965	49	.960	89	.880	129	.917
11	.805	50	.952	90	.901	130	.953
12	.962	51	.899	91	.950	131	.994
13	.865	52	.964	92	.892	132	.973
14	.939	53	.821	93	.904	133	.837
15	.965	54	.862	94	.771	134	.901
16	.820	55	.804	95	.856	135	.800
17	.982	56	.942	96	.892	136	.868
18	.958	57	.941	97	.772	137	.833
19	.980	58	.933	98	.897	138	.872
20	.961	59	.902	99	.865	139	.760
21	.842	60	.910	100	.845	140	.850
22	.895	61	.896	101	.748		
23	.866	62	.865	102	.845	**Part II**	
24	.917	63	.915	103	.943		
25	.956	64	.929	104	.912	1	.929
26	.928	65	.887	105	.962	2	.902
27	.900	66	.756	106	.902	3	.842
28	.806	67	.934	107	.954	4	.949
29	.910	68	.925	108	.830	5	.958
30	.947	69	.880	109	.897	6	.841
31	.909	70	.929	110	.974	7	.905
32	.955	71	.899	111	.903	8	.900
33	.929	72	.901	112	.954	9	.850
34	.915	73	.933	113	.967	10	.719
35	.926	74	.884	114	.897	11	.981
36	.905	75	.935	115	.906	12	.813
37	.950	76	.907	116	.878	13	.896
38	.966	77	.951	117	.891		
39	.963	78	.926	118	.903		
		79	.752	119	.925		